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THIS SPEECH AGE MAKES NEW DEMANDS
UPON EDUCATION

Rupert L. Cortright

I

ALL types of titles have been suggested for our times: the Atomic Age, the Travel Age, the Mass Production Era—but surely it is at least equally likely that future historians may call ours the Speech Age. In rapid succession have come phonograph, telephone, radio, talking picture, and television, greatly extending the reach and potential effectiveness of man's voice. In the meantime, equally striking progress in travel facilities and speed has amazingly increased the number of persons with whom the average person talks in the course even of his daily work and recreation.

In 1926, just over a quarter of a century ago, Paul Rankin (now Assistant Superintendent of the Detroit Public Schools) included in his doctoral dissertation at the University of Michigan an analysis of the time spent by twenty-one adults in communication through verbal symbols over a period of sixty days. He found their time divided among the four common activities as follows: Writing 11 per cent, Reading 15 per cent, Talking 31.9 per cent, and

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Listening 42.1 per cent. How much greater even than three times as many hours are spent by today's adult in speaking and listening as in writing and reading! The speech teacher of 1953 faces the challenge to prepare his students for a greater oral era than has been lived by any previous generation. Men and women who lack at least reasonable facility in speech are, and will be, ill-adapted indeed to the Speech Age. The ability to adapt to environmental change is supposed to be one of the superiorities of man over the rest of the animal world!

II

To write all this is to write nothing new. But to analyze the full meaning of these changes is to indicate at least how inadequate is yesterday's education for the living of today and tomorrow. This is but one of the reasons why teaching must be an ever-changing and improving art. The tradition of the teacher is a part of the great democratic faith in learning and in truth: a faith that all men must be not alone eternally free to learn, but ever better equipped to meet the demands of changing times.

Gutenberg's invention of movable type placed truth—and falsehood too!—within the reach of all who would be given the opportunity to learn to read.

Yet how inadequate it is for a nation to boast of its high percentage of *literacy:* the ability to recognize the intended meaning of symbols upon a printed page! Literacy, too often in our time, merely places great masses of people at the mercy of propagandists, demagogues, and mis-leaders. How great is our need, even beyond election years, for citizens who not only can read, but can read with discrimination and judgment. There is more to reading than the ready recognition of language symbols. There is more to speaking than the ready utterance of thought. Sandburg's questions are searching ones:

> Who shall speak for the people?
> Who has the answers?
> Where is the sure interpreter?
> Who knows what to say?

With all our stress upon skill in reading comprehension and reading speed there is need for some emphasis upon oral reading and critical, evaluational reading. This is a large and extensive need which is directed to speech teachers and space permits only its suggestion here.

One recent summer upon a western campus I was talking with a distinguished scientist from a great eastern university. I chanced to speak (perhaps there was envy in my voice) of the large contributions of science to man in our time. I found him greatly concerned about the ineffectiveness of many scientists as speakers. He pointed out that the use to which the achievements of science are put will depend upon the effectiveness of voices at crucial conference tables. Thus did a scientist make me more aware of the importance of your and my task as teachers of speech. It is our high privilege and responsibility so to teach future scientists, voters, and leaders that they may have the skills to make truth and right more

persuasive, more impelling, and more universally embraced. As Aristotle said, more than twenty centuries ago: "Truth and justice are by nature more powerful than their opposites; when decisions are not made as they should be, the speakers with the right on their side have only themselves to thank for the outcome."

This was the thinking of the astronomer and atomic scientist to whom I referred above: It doesn't matter what new weapons of war and destruction the scientist may develop. They can bring us no security. The only real security must come from the men who sit around international conference tables. These must somehow be clear communicators, masters of inter-personal relations, convincing men, able in the persuasive arts of speech.

As the President's Commission on Higher Education emphasized: "The potentialities of atomic power are as great for human betterment as for human annihilation." Users of words will largely determine whether we choose annihilation or betterment.

Another phase of this broad truth is illustrated in the fact that science has made it possible to send the human voice all the way around the world in a fraction of a second. Yet Charles Kettering wisely pointed out that it may take a long time to get one idea through the thickness of an individual's skull. What science makes *possible* does not necessarily become instant reality. As the noted physician, Sir William Osler, more than three decades ago, said to the Historical Section of the Royal Society of Medicine: "In science the credit goes to the man who convinces the world, not to the man to whom the idea first occurs." When Alexander Fleming, during World War II, accepted the honors of his grateful Government for the discovery of penicillin he took occasion to

lament the long years and many thousands of unnecessary deaths which intervened between the date of penicillin's discovery and the much later date of its general acceptance and use by the medical profession. The art of persuasion is widely needed to bring men's minds abreast of truth, to teach ignorant men how they may better use the discoveries of science for the enrichment of their own lives. This art of persuasion must be taught in our speech classes to the nation's future scientists, doctors, lawyers, laborers, and voters.

The unique demand of this Speech Age upon education is that it shall turn out men and women who command a plain and simple directness in oral communication. The need is for speech not as a skill apart, not as just an art; but as the essence of life—a prime essential to man in his effort better to use his environment and himself.

III

If we as teachers of speech are willing to be servants, the world is ready to be served by us. If we are looking for glory in that task, for a larger place in the academic sun, there are too many on higher shelves anxious to push us down. But no one is competing to do the job which is uniquely ours. We must be content with the certain knowledge that he who serves has enriched the lives of others—that he who teaches this generation determines tomorrow.

When we teach speech we teach the total personality and the total thought process of an individual. Psychologists of the behaviorist school give us needed insight into the total speech process when they define thinking as "the shorthand of speaking." "Thought, language, voice, and action," said Woolbert, "are the phases of speech." Thus we, as teachers of speech, are concerned

when our contemporary, Bertrand Russell, cynically observes that "the trouble with the world is that the stupid are cocksure and the intelligent are filled with doubt." It is a part of our task to prepare tomorrow's ablest leaders in every profession to speak up with sufficient assurance and confidence to command the respect and support of their fellows. What hope is there for a democracy in which only quacks and demagogues are confident and skilled in speaking? And how inadequate is any training for public speaking which is not concerned with thought and language as well as voice and action!

Nevertheless we as teachers of speech may be over-sensitive to well-intentioned (but not always well-informed) critics. Because our young, trained speakers possess the fairly normal youthful tendency to "feel their oats"—and are at times possibly over-free in expression of their opinions—we are worried by the critic who charges that we teach them how to say "nothing" beautifully. But, really now, are we (the teachers of speech) the ones vulnerable to such a charge? If it be true that our students have "nothing" to say, is this not more a reflection upon the teachers of history, literature, and science? We teachers of speech are not all there is to education. We are but fellow-workers in the total project. In our emphasis upon "how to say it" we must not overlook the "what to say." But this "thought" phase of speech is alike the concern of *every* teacher—be the subject physics, mathematics, social science, or speech.

Shortly after General Dwight Eisenhower became President of Columbia University he wrote an "Open Letter to American Students" containing this observation: "School should train you in the two great basic tools of the mind:

the use of words and the use of numbers." And he added: "When America consists of one *leader* and 143,000,000 *followers,* it will no longer be America." I believe we may safely assume that the General's political experience of recent months will not have lessened his emphasis upon the universal importance of training in the use of words. I quote both of Eisenhower's statements because they seem to me to be parts of one total truth: We cannot keep democracy without training more leaders, *but* every citizen (not just the leaders) must have training in the "use of words." Let us not overlook, in passing, that what we are noting here emphasizes two demands of this Speech Age upon us as teachers: 1. The need for training in the fundamentals of parliamentary procedure—for both participants and leaders of groups; and 2. the potential role of speech as a central core of common training needed by men and women of all vocations and professions.

Personally, I have been teaching speech for more than a quarter of a century. As I think back over the names of some of the several thousand students whose lives I have had some little opportunity to influence, I am impressed by the all-inclusiveness of the list of occupations and professions in which they are now engaged. So it will be in future years for those now in your classes. Let us never forget that our primary obligation is to prepare our students for the practical, everyday demands of a Speech Age. Our curriculum, therefore, must alike serve the comparatively few who will rise to stardom on Radio, TV, Stage, Screen or Political Platform *and* "All American Youth" whose personal, professional and social competence and happy adjustment to life will be enriched and more effectively implemented by basic speech training.

Educational fads there will always be and ardent teachers earnestly convinced that they have at-long-last the one sure way to teach youth. Some place all faith in discussion, or group dynamics, or semantics, or creative dramatics, or socio-drama. I would not wish to discourage or lessen the commendable enthusiasm of any teacher. Without enthusiasm there will never be great teaching—and it is not difficult to prove that an enthusiastic teacher makes his subject important. Yet I would say a wistful word in behalf of the teaching of *speech.* It matters not how much beyond that we may be able to accomplish; let us make certain that our students improve in *action,* in *voice,* in *language,* and in *thought.* Otherwise, whatever else we may have accomplished, we shall have failed to teach *speech!*

Personally, I am an ardent enthusiast for interscholastic debate. In all my experience I have found no means more effective than debate to teach public speaking. I can quote in support of this high positive evaluation a successful Big Ten Football Coach who says: "A top-notch football player should be sure to 1. keep in good physical condition, 2. see that his diet is balanced, and 3. *be a debater.*"[1] A University Administrator of my acquaintance says his debating was "the most important single educational experience of my career." A Traffic Judge in my city, speaking in appreciation of his own high school and university debate training says, "If you can't express yourself properly, all the ability in the world won't do much good." Yet in spite of great enthusiasm for debate, I must admit that I have judged many high school and college debaters whose

[1] Quoted by Arthur Juntunen in *The Detroit Free Press,* March 16, 1952.

coaches had done little or nothing to improve their skill or effectiveness as public speakers. Such coaches are falling short of their full responsibilities. Their students may be well grounded in evidence and in logic, but woefully inadequate in persuasion and presentation. There is no excuse for teaching speech inadequately and incompletely. So I say, whether our special interests are in debate, radio, discussion, dramatics, television, interpretative reading, public speaking, or any other of the specialized techniques, there is no excuse for our failing to teach those speech skills which are fundamental to all.

Louisa Fletcher Connely once wrote:
I wish there were some wonderful place
  Called the Land of Beginning Again . . .

In many ways the speech classroom can and should be such a land. Careless habits are to be laid aside. Each youngster is to begin again, as it were, learning to express himself and to communicate to others. With apologies to Louisa Fletcher Connely:
The Speech Class is a wonderful place
  Called the Land of Beginning Again
Where all our mistakes and inhibiting fears
  And all our troublesome doubts
Can be dropped like a shabby old coat at the door,
  And never put on again.

It requires inspiration and determination to make new beginnings. Until the motivation is present, little progress is to be expected. This is why a student trying out for a play, or debate, or an oratory contest is a willing and enthusiastic pupil. He senses his need for improvement. So it is with a student whose lisp or foreign accent may be keeping him from a desired job. Strong motivation greatly facilitates the learning process. And if it is not present it must first be found and brought into play else the teacher's task is much more difficult.

IV

This Land of Beginning Again has many areas. Those who like to emphasize the obvious fact that speech is communication may overlook the equally obvious (and equally important) fact that speech is self-expression. How often there is opened up for the speech student a whole new land of opportunity: a new speech personality! Psychiatrists tell us that inhibitions in self-expression, tendencies to withdraw within one's self, and habits of avoiding talking with others, are among the warning signals which may precede mental breakdowns. A healthy, well-adjusted, and happy personality is one which expresses itself to others. We must not neglect this aspect of speech in the classroom. The present times of stress and strain certainly make this demand imperative.

If we are correct in believing that personality is the sum total of habits and habit systems, then when we change habits (of articulation or voice pitch, or language use, or gesture, or thought) inevitably we influence personality. And it is not alone through the teaching of correct breathing and proper posture that the improvement of health itself may be a concomitant of speech improvement.

Teaching conversational skill is closely related to all these considerations. Good conversation is one of the most delightful and enriching experiences for all participants. Surely we can help our students lift conversation above the weather, what to wear tonight, or our pet prejudices, to things that really matter, that affect the betterment of our community, that affect education, or happier living. Man was not made to live alone in silence. Conversation can and should contribute to personal growth, to the greater satisfactions

of life, to happiness and peace of mind, and to self-confidence.

We noted at the beginning of this article that our era's right to the title of Speech Age is strengthened by the fact it is also a Travel Age. The entire world is closer together today in travel time than were the thirteen colonies at the time of the Revolution. This means an expanded social environment to which individuals must adjust themselves. It means innumerable opportunities for conflict in inter-personal relations. Not so long ago most persons lived out their lives within a few miles of where they were born, among people of similar background, similar beliefs, prejudice, and attitudes. Now, with the speed of modern travel, we meet far more individuals of greatly varying backgrounds, prejudices, and attitudes. The demands of such an age upon the daily use of speech, persuasiveness, and ability in inter-personal relations teach us new duties in the classroom. Semantically alone, the simple problem of understanding grows rapidly more complex.

It is the feeling of this writer that the specific implications of what we have been saying can best be worked out by the ingenuity and adaptiveness of the faculty in charge of a given school curriculum. This will most effectively be done by a speech teacher in a spirit of service to all departments of the school, all subjects, and all activities of school and community. The teaching of skills in oral expression needs the facilitating and encouraging cooperation of teachers of all subjects. If a chemistry teacher is content with an oral recitation or report because its content is "chemically accurate," even

though it is mumbled and weakly organized, that teacher is not only neglecting the needs and best interests of the student but is falling short of being a fully cooperating member of the educational "team." Similarly, a teacher of speech needs to check with the teachers of other subjects to learn what difficulties certain students have with self-expression in other classes and activities. A program which thus evolves to meet actual needs is most truly attuned to the demands of a Speech Age.

V

Five summary principles may prove helpful for guidance in a general way:

1. Each assignment and activity should make contributions to those skills which the pupil will most need in this Speech Age.

2. Whatever the general curriculum philosophy—be it the core curriculum or otherwise—speech classes should facilitate coordination and establish their functional service relationship with all other classes and activities.

3. Since speech is a product of the *entire* individual, intimately tied in with health, personality, and social adjustment, its training must not neglect these aspects.

4. The development of unusual talent and skill is a proud part of our obligation to train leaders and is neither less nor more than our responsibility to teach speech for "All American Youth."

5. Individual enthusiasms for this or that phase of speech must not blind us to the necessity for doing the complete job of improving all phases of Speech: Bodily Action, Voice, Language, and Thought.

COOPERATION BETWEEN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELOR AND THE SPEECH TEACHER

LaVange H. Richardson

COUNSELING services for high school and college students are becoming more and more a part of the plan of education in this country. Educators are finding that students need more than just classroom instruction and club activities to prepare them for academic and vocational goals and for more adequate social development. Of the several agencies which have contributed materially to the growth of personnel work at the college level, The American Council of Education has served most effectively.[1] The Veterans Administration's vast program of vocational advisement for World War II veterans has also been a vital factor in making people aware of the value of planning more carefully for a life vocation. How many departments, professors, and teachers make use of the counseling service in their institutions is difficult to estimate, but more awareness of how this service can contribute to the betterment of the student is desirable.

At The City College in New York the Division of Testing and Guidance is part of the Department of Student Life which has five divisions:[2]

1. Testing and Guidance plans and conducts the entrance examinations of all new students attempting to qualify for admission to City College.[3] The division also provides individual counseling for students who come for vocational, educational, or personal adjustment problems; and, if further testing seems advisable, additional psychological tests and questionnaires are administered individually. Between 1250 and 1300 students are served each term.

2. The student activities division is concerned with group activities at the college such as: student organizations, social functions, student-faculty relations, freshmen orientation, and disciplinary problems.

3. The veterans' counseling division aids the former service man in his registration at City College and in making out the necessary forms for benefits such as tuition and books to be received from Veterans Administration. This division also provides information concerning draft laws and requirements.

4. The placement office assists undergraduates and graduates in obtaining employment.

5. The research division carries out research pertaining to follow-up studies of City College graduates, effectiveness of entrance examinations, and relationship of grades to test scores.

The Student Life Department also has a service for physically handicapped students in which recommendations of a Health Guidance Board are carried out. These students receive special

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[1] Gilbert C. Wrenn, *Student Personnel Work in College* (New York, 1951).

[2] LaVange H. Richardson, "Guidance for College Students," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* 35 (1949), pp. 363-374.

[3] Louis Long and James Perry, "Entrance Examinations at The College of the City of New York," *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* 7 (1947), pp. 767-772.

testing, and arrangements are made for readers for the blind, transportation for the crippled, and advantageous placement in the classroom when sight or hearing loss requires it.

In the Division of Testing and Guidance a folder of personnel material is prepared for each student. This includes a questionnaire he has filled out at the time of testing, his punch card with test results, and the high school transcript. The questionnaire includes information about his family, his extracurricular activities in high school, preferred subjects, non-preferred subjects, work experience, and preferences as to course of study.

There is some overlapping of counseling for speech, hearing loss, and sight loss cases since the more seriously handicapped ones are closely supervised by the representative of the Health Guidance Board. In the Division of Testing and Guidance the writer works with the speech and hearing loss cases and one of the counselors at the School of Business and Civic Administration is trained to work with the blind and sight loss cases.

No rules are set down as to how many students each one must counsel. The length of interview is limited. Usually a half hour is assigned, but if an hour or more is needed, the counselor arranges the schedule accordingly with the secretary in the contact office. There are both men and women counselors, but no attempt is made to schedule women students for interviews with women counselors or men students with men counselors. The number of interviews per student is left to the discretion of the counselor. These may range in number from one to as many as seventeen per term. Students coming five or more times usually have difficulties of a personal nature which

frequently can be alleviated by some concentrated counseling for a term or two.

Academic and some vocational guidance is also available for students at the office of the Dean of Liberal Arts and the office of the Dean of the School of Business. Advisers from various schools such as Technology, Education, and Business, and from some of the departments such as mathematics, history, and English are available to students who desire to discuss their plans. These advisers frequently refer students, however, to the Division of Testing and Guidance if a detailed analysis of their problems appears necessary.

Since speech problems in New York City are as varied and numerous as one would find anywhere in the United States, The City College requires more speech courses than most colleges. Four terms are required of all but technology students who are obliged to take only three.

Every entering student is administered a simple speech test in which some oral reading is required. The examiner makes a decision on the basis of this and his conversation as to whether the student may enter Public Speaking I or will need individual help in a remedial class. He is obliged to remain in the corrective class until the department determines whether a maximum of improvement has been achieved. Then he may proceed with the four required courses.

The first term of Public Speaking deals largely with voice and diction and provides some opportunity for reading and speaking before the class. The second term concerns interpretative reading and reciting from memory. At the School of Business and Civic Administration, the second term is more concerned with interview techniques

than with interpretation. The third term takes up discussion and debating techniques, and the fourth term includes advanced public speaking.

Since speech requirements are very strict for teachers in the New York City public schools, the Department of Speech provides extra help for Education students who fail the oral examination.

This article is concerned with ways in which the Division of Testing and Guidance has been of service to students referred by professors in the Department of Speech, and what may be accomplished when two departments cooperate for a common good.

There is scarcely any classroom situation in college which provides an instructor with more opportunity to get acquainted with students and find out how they feel about themselves and their environment than does a class in speech. Topics for speeches may concern psychological or personal viewpoints on a number of topics such as those suggested by Thonssen and Scanlan:[4] avocations, personal ambitions, family relationships in the home, marriage, divorce, religion, student-faculty relationships, and social activities. Invariably certain students will show deviances in behavior, aggressions, prejudices, and indicate their frustrations in one way or another. The speech teacher is in position to make a judgment as to whether these expressions appear to be persistent and threaten to become incapacitating, or interfere with effective living. In these cases he may be of tremendous service to the student by indicating where counseling may be obtained at the college.

Not only can the speech instructor spot chronic problems through speech

content, but sometimes he finds them revealed in voice quality, inflection, rhythm, and pitch. Speech is such an integral part of personality, both intellectually and emotionally. Often the individual needs only to acquire some knowledge of Self in order to obtain intelligent control. "Control does not involve a rigorous repression or inhibiting of feelings, but rather an intelligent choice of which emotions to express and how to do it."[5]

Let us illustrate. A professor in speech surmised that a senior in his third term speech class had problems deeper than those manifested by his stage fright. He suggested that the student come to a counselor for a discussion of the difficulty.

The neurotic individual can always be depended upon to think too much of self. As Brigance says: "The speaker who thinks chiefly about himself, who keeps asking himself, 'How am I doing?' is going to manufacture stage fright unless he is a consummate egotist indeed. Thinking about yourself makes you self-conscious and muscle bound."[6] Indeed, the first interview with the student referred to above, revealed that not only did he have the usual shakiness, perspiring, and quivering of voice during the rendering of his speech, but he was troubled with diarrhea a few days prior to the day the speech was to be made. He had similar somatic difficulty before attending any social function. The professor could help the student overcome the stage fright, but time and perhaps training did not permit his probing into factors contributing to the gastro-intestinal problem.

[4] Lester Thonssen and Ross Scanlan, *Speech Preparation and Delivery* (New York, 1942).

[5] Frederick C. Thorne, "Psychology of Control," *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 5 (1949), pp. 374-385.
[6] William Norwood Brigance, *Speech Communication* (New York, 1947), p. 17.

It was found, also, that the student had had traumatic experiences every term all through grammar school when eye tests were administered. Each time the pupils would come up for the test, the nurse required him to remove his glasses before reading the chart. A myopic condition prevented him naming the letters accurately. The ridicule of his playmates was more than he could endure. It seems that a simple speech situation during a routine eye examination in the presence of jeering classmates in grade school was giving him troubles as an adult in a speech class in college.

During fifteen counseling sessions he was helped to evaluate his extreme feelings of unworthiness which were partially brought on by the role he tried to play in the family. The father was unemployed during the depression and the mother would reveal her anxieties to her son. Being only a pre-adolescent, he was quite powerless to alleviate the financial situation and as a result felt inadequate for meeting the demands of life about him. The stage fright was only one of several manifestations of his feelings of incapability, and when he began to evaluate his experiences from the point of view of an adult, the stage fright was one of the first symptoms to clear up. The speech professor stated that by the end of three or four weeks he had forgotten the student had had a problem of fright.

When a freshman or sophomore comes to the Division of Testing and Guidance for aptitude tests, or has a complaint about reading rate or inadequacy in speaking before a group, the problems seem legitimate. But when an upper junior or senior begins to cut classes, or wants aptitude tests or help on reading or speech, those statements are warning signals oftentimes and the counselor looks for something back of these requests.

An upper junior girl, who was about ready to begin practice teaching, said one day, "Oh, if I could only make a good speech. It is important to me because I plan to teach." Sometimes it is easier to fix the blame on lack of speaking ability than to admit, "Maybe I have other personality weaknesses much more difficult to eradicate."

This girl was making use of her conversational abilities in a curious way. Many of our students bemoan not being able to hold their own in a group conversation. She was spending three hours on two nights a week visiting with friends by telephone. This turned out to be a substitute for actual group social participation. She was not mustering her forces to study, her grades were becoming progressively lower, and she complained of being a slow reader.

Counseling once a week for two terms helped her clear up some of her social inadequacies and home problems; then her grades began to improve through more effective studying. This added confidence in herself enabled her to function more ably in the speech situation in class.

The professor in speech may contribute considerably to a student's personality development by being aware of some of the "garden variety" symptoms that are manifested in a classroom. The harsh, aggressive student doesn't take long in making himself seen, heard, and felt. If this is a frequent pattern of behavior, he may well be expressing his hostilities indiscriminately and might profit by an opportunity to express them in a counseling situation where guidance aims to help him gain insight into what his hostilities represent. On the other hand, the student who invariably sits in the back row, communicates

with no one, and speaks only when required, may be carrying some heavy burdens which might be alleviated if he were referred to the sources made available by the high school or college. The busy classroom teacher sometimes is grateful for a quiet student among too many noise makers and loses sight of the fact that he may have more severe disturbances than the aggressive student. A hard of hearing boy illustrates the latter situation. He was referred with the statement, "He is just a lonesome kid." One of the speech professors is now working with him on his voice and diction while at the same time the student is coming for counseling so that he may find more adequate personal expression as he goes through college.

Vocational problems among students show up in a speech class. A favorite topic is "My Vocation," and cues may be obtained as to difficulties the student may be having vocationally. One of our speech professors discovered that a hard of hearing girl with whom he was working was very discouraged since her goal of teaching in the public schools was ruled out because of her handicap. As a result, she was floundering academically, lacked direction of purpose, and was generally ineffectual. Some counseling helped her to accept her hearing loss and to center her interests upon another goal allied to teaching but which is more practical in the light of her disability.

The speech professor and counselor can work especially well together in problems of stuttering. The speech work centers around necessary drills, relaxation, and classroom participation. At the same time, the counseling centers on helping the student to accept the disability, to focus attention upon desirable assets which he may have or develop, to achieve more social skills,

and to alleviate some of the frustrations which contributed to his speech difficulty.[7] One of our students, who stuttered severely, received counseling in conjuction with speech therapy and became a leader of one of the student organizations on the campus. Although he was not entirely free of speech blocking, his best improvement was attained when he became able to prevent his disability from interfering with his social and leadership activities.

Sometimes the Division of Testing and Guidance is useful to another department by merely providing background information about students which will help the instructor to deal more effectively with them. For example, a speech instructor in the evening session inquired about a boy whose speech was extremely raucous and indistinct. Behavior was also deviant. A counselor had had several contacts with the student and his parents, and we were able to inform the instructor that the boy had a birth injury and is under psychiatric treatment for a mild psychotic disturbance.

There is also reciprocal referral in which the Division of Testing and Guidance frequently calls upon the Department of Speech for some individual assistance for a student who is discouraged about the oral requirements in Education. At times a student with a lisp, for example, slips back into the old pattern, and it is gratifying to be able to call upon some one in speech to give him some extra drill. The opinion of those of us in the Division of Testing and Guidance is that this cooperation with the Department of Speech is providing greater aid to students than if either were trying to work without benefit of referrals.

[7] Louis P. Thorpe, *The Psychology of Mental Health* (New York, 1950); Lee E. Travis, "My Present Thinking on Stuttering." *Western Speech*, 10 (1946), pp. 3-5.

SPEECH SCIENCE OR ART?

Sara Lowrey

HELEN was listening to a phonograph recording of her speech.[1] Her tutor (a graduate student in the speech correction clinic) was commending her for the progress she had made. I was in the next office grading papers but finding it difficult to concentrate on parallel reading reports when Helen's labored enunciation of "Ma-Ma" and other simple words penetrated the thin wall. I found myself empathizing with her intense effort to form each speech sound. Before the record player was turned off I had decided to see what I could do to help her to more rhythmical, fluent, normal speech.

Helen was a college freshman. Her mother had known since she was nine months old that she had cerebral palsy. The mother began right then to direct, stimulate, motivate Helen to use her muscles and to behave in as normal a way as possible. Helen's mother went through the usual search for direction, following every suggestion she could get and dared to experiment with physical therapy, mental motivation, and strict discipline. She did a good job and now Helen was a freshman in college, living in the dormitory, entering into the curricular and extra-curricular activities with the strong will characteristic of her parents. Helen was popular with girls and boys. She was so gracious, who could be other than friendly toward her?

Miss Lowrey (M.A., Baylor, 1923) is Professor of Speech at Furman University.

[1] The names used in the article are fictitious, but the cases are actual. There has been an honest attempt to relate the stories exactly as they occurred.

Helen's brain injury was not severe; certainly there seemed nothing wrong with her thinking! One little twisted hand was likely to fly off at almost any angle except when she was driving a car. One foot dragged except when she caught sight of herself in a panel mirror and remembered to take time to force those muscles to lift that foot. Her handwriting was not very legible and her speech was difficult to understand, but her smile was infectious and she could peck at a typewriter with her good hand. She was passing her courses.

The teacher of speech correction was duly shocked when I suggested that Helen take a course in interpretative reading. "She needs rhythm," I said, "but her great need, it seems, is to forget the act of speech in her interest in the meaning to be communicated. I believe I could help her and I should like to try." The correction teacher was courteous and mild but assured me that it would be a mistake for Helen to enroll in such a course.

I knew that the speech correction teacher did not know how I would approach the problem. I suspected that she had a picture of Helen standing before a class trying to recite a poem and receiving criticism on inflection, emphasis, and phrasing. I thought of telling her then that my approach would be quite different from the traditional approach to oral reading—that I would emphasize *a technique of thinking* rather than performance—but I did not want to bring pressure for two reasons: (1) the speech correction teacher was

doing fine work under a difficult regime, and (2) I had had no experience with the cerebral palsied; my work would be somewhat experimental though motivated by human interest.

The correction teacher was so overloaded she was attempting to do much of her work through advanced students who were accumulating clinical points, and we were attempting to handle cases, in so far as we were able, in regular speech courses. While she welcomed suggestions from me as a colleague and as chairman of her department, she turned down my suggestion concerning Helen without any real consideration. I understood that she thought a course in interpretation had little value for the cerebral palsied, and that she feared it might be positively detrimental. There was such freedom and understanding between us that she felt free to turn me down, and I accepted her decision for the time being, but I did not assent; Helen was continually on my mind and as I thought about her my conviction that I could help her grew. The next fall I went again to the speech correction teacher and said, "I still want to see what I can do for Helen. If she enrolls for my class, I will not require her to read before the class, and I will give her two private lessons a week. I think my lectures will be of value. I believe that through an understanding of imagery as a technique of thinking, literature will take on more meaning and enjoyment. This approach to oral reading should contribute fluency to her speech. It will emphasize concentrating on the meaning instead of centering attention on the act of speech. I want to see what can be done for her speech by this indirect approach."

As I tried to clarify my approach to interpretative reading[2] the face of the

teacher brightened and she said, "Why, that is the new idea of dealing with the cerebral palsied." She took down from a shelf the book, "Born That Way," by Carlson,[3] and offered to lend it to me. I read the book with eager interest and joy for it increased my assurance that through interpretative reading Helen could learn to speak by concentrating on meaning instead of working laboriously on the utterance of separate speech sounds, as was probably necessary in the early training given in the clinic.

There followed months of experimentation into which Helen and I plunged with zest. She entered into the study of literature with appreciation. At first, her speech sounded hardly more impressive than the labored sounds I had heard on the record player, but her face revealed pleasant responses to the meaning of literature while her body gradually relaxed. The study of literature was proving good therapy.

When we reached the study of motor imagery, I began to give Helen vigorous workouts through which she would come up panting and after which she would read with well-supported tones, medium or low pitch, and normal melody—quite a contrast to the thin, high, childish treble of a few weeks previous. After an unusually successful experience, I said in a manner half-stern and half playful, "Do not ever speak to me again in that infantile whine." I imitated her as I spoke, and she laughed with her usual sportsmanlike attitude.

The first time Helen read in public was in a demonstration before the convention audience of the Southern Speech Association. While I was explaining to the audience that this was her first reading for anyone except me, but that she would concentrate for them just as

[2] Sara Lowrey and Gertrude Johnson, *Interpretative Reading* (New York, 1941).

[3] Earl R. Carlson, *Born That Way* (New York, 1941).

she had learned to do in private lessons, Helen was getting adjusted to the lectern. (She found it helpful to hold the lectern with that obstreperous hand.) On this occasion she seemed to have unusual difficulty in making the hand take hold. When it finally obeyed her will, the audience burst into applause. They were rewarded with one of Helen's characteristic smiles. Then she concentrated on the imagery of the poem, *The Wind,* by Robert Louis Stevenson, and the audience heard normal, fluent speech; and I believe they, too, concentrated on the meaning of the poem more than on the articulation of sounds.

Marcia was fifteen when she was in an automobile accident which left her mute for many days. Central nervous system injury from severe concussion resulting in myasthenia was the doctor's diagnosis. In the spring of her junior year in high school her mother asked me to take her for private lessons upon the recommendation of the speech correction teacher who felt a change of therapy would re-kindle her interest. Marcia could produce all of the speech sounds, but her tone was nasal and there was an audible click in the pharynx, or nares, which was somewhat distracting. She was short-winded and spoke in a monotone with mono-pitch and drawl.

Marcia responded favorably to the voice and diction exercises, showed improvement in breath control and oral resonance, and in six weeks had begun to speak with some flexibility of tone and pitch when the time came for her, and for me, to leave for summer trips. She had shown splendid understanding of and appreciation for literature. She had caught on quickly to the idea of concentrating on imagery as she read. She promised to read aloud and to practice her voice and diction exercises during the summer.

In the fall Marcia's mother wanted me to continue the private lessons, but I said: "I can do better. I am to teach a class in choral reading which I want Marcia to join." I was sure she needed the exercises in rhythm and other elements of interpretation and that she needed most to forget herself. I was convinced that the private lessons in which her thoughts were centered upon herself and her problem could not accomplish what participation in choral reading would do.

At first it was easy to distinguish Marcia's monotone from the not too musical voices of the school teachers who comprised the major portion of the class. I appeared to pay no more attention to Marcia than to the other members of the group. As weeks passed all members of the class began to take enthusiastic interest in choral interpretation and the voices, including Marcia's, became flexible, more musical, and blended.

Marcia was forgetting herself in her enjoyment of poetry and her enthusiasm for creative interpretation. She took her turn in leading the group with poems she selected, explaining the interpretation she wished, and assigning parts for solo or choral reading. When, toward the end of the semester, I entertained the class with in informal tea, Marcia offered to help serve. She carried one plate at a time with a sufficiently steady hand and a charming manner. She joined in conversation with ease and enthusiasm, telling us triumphantly that neighbors were taking her for her mother when she answered the telephone.

Marcia is now a college freshman. She is enrolled in a course in voice and phonetics. There is more that she can accomplish, but it can be done as a regular member of a speech class. Her "special" days are over.

Sue was nervous, jerky, and difficult to understand when, during freshman orientation week, she spoke to me about special lessons in speech. Her speech was mostly vowel. She was more tense than Helen and Marcia had been, and I wondered what she would be able to accomplish. Her need appealed to me and there seemed to be no one else to help her. The speech teacher who had helped her the year before had prodded her so much she had developed stuttering symptoms. I was glad to know her explanation of this tendency. It is difficult to know how much prodding a student needs. Helen had seemed to thrive on it; the harder the work-out the more progress she made. Marcia, however, had told me at the beginning that she must be allowed to work at her own speed and that I simply made her nervous when I tried to push her too fast.

Sue was advised to enroll for the course, "The Training of the Speaking Voice," and also for private instruction. She became more tense when class work was mentioned, but I assured her that she would not have to participate except when she felt adequate; I explained to her that she was the only person who could improve her speech; the teacher could merely suggest ways and means, motivate, and encourage; she as a college freshman should approach her problem with a mature attitude. She was assured that she would be given academic credit on the course if she passed tests on information only.

By the end of the first semester Sue could produce all consonant sounds except "r" which invariably came out as "w." Her articulation was clearer but final consonants were often conspicuous by their absence. She passed the first semester course from evidence of an understandnig of the textbook, phone-

tics, diacritical markings, and general progress in speech.

At the beginning of the second semester she enrolled in a course in which speaking and reading were emphasized. She volunteered to participate in oral assignments and was triumphant after her first "speech." Her classmates were enthusiastic in words of encouragement.

Sue was responsive to the idea of imagery as a technique of thinking for interpretative reading. As she concentrated on visual and auditory imagery her melody approached that of normal speech. She plunged enthusiastically into motor imagery and rhythm, and for a time was delightfully melodramatic. Extreme bodily actions released her jaw and tongue as well as the gross muscles and mental tensions. After some weeks of work with exaggerated actions, I began to talk to her about organic imagery and restraint. We talked of "under-imagery" and "outer stillness." It was gratifying to see how clearly she could think, how fluently she could speak, and how still she could be as she concentrated on the whole concept, motivated by organic imagery. Sue was at last experiencing the joy of calm; her muscles were becoming coordinated and she was developing control of them as she gained serenity.

One of her first great triumphs came when she attended a music recital and was able to be outwardly still as she enjoyed the music. She explained later that she had not been attending public programs because her bodily twitchings appeared to indicate nervous inattention. "Now," she said triumphantly, "I can control these movements and enjoy the music."

By the end of her freshman year Sue could produce all speech sounds including the initial "r," which was the last one she conquered. She had begun

to speak with a more flexible melody and, according to the testimony of neighbors in her home town, with much clearer articulation. Sue can now keep step with others as she walks with them and she has a sense of well-being due to the control she has achieved over her body.

Sue was advised to enter a course in choral reading as a college sophomore. Her speech is not as easy, fluent, or clearly intelligible as it should be, but her progress gives promise of ease and poise which will approximate that of her companions.

I do not pretend to be a speech correction teacher, except in the sense that all speech teachers are, or should be, correction teachers. My experience, however, has been gratifying not only with these cerebral palsied but with people who stutter, have foreign backgrounds, or other articulation difficulties.

I admire and appreciate the splendid progress and significant contributions made by those who comprise the Speech and Hearing Association and who work from a scientific approach. May we not go further, however, and give due recognition to the relation of speech science to speech art? Are speech science and speech art dichotomic, or is the art of speech a continuum of speech science? Are not science and art inseparable within the field of speech correction, within the fields of drama, interpretative reading, and public address? Science is to know; art is to do. Science is organized knowledge; art is applied knowledge.

The art of interpretative reading may be used to bring literature to life for an audience, to give students a better understanding of and appreciation for literature, or to aid a student to more fluent speech. The same may be said of drama. A director of plays helped a certain student with a cleft palate to speak more clearly; then, she cast him in plays in order to help him develop his whole personality. He showed more improvement during his theatre experience than he had shown during the period of special lessons in voice and articulation. The director remarked, "The feeling of belonging to the group has meant as much to him as the specific help on articulation."

The science of speech pathology is of value as a phase of knowledge but it reaches its fruition in the art of clear, balanced, fluent speech. Those of us who foster the art of speech and those who specialize on scientific aspects should be mutually appreciative and intelligent. I have taken a half dozen or more courses which would now be classified as speech correction. They have contributed to my art of interpretative reading and to my effectiveness as a teacher. The same thing can be said of the study of psychology. There is as much relation between psychology and interpretative reading as there is between psychology and speech correction.

I am pleased with the progressive attitudes of speech correction teachers toward all scientific knowledge. I should like for them to be as appreciative of the value of interpretative reading and theatre and to recognize the need of sound *speech* training for speech therapists. Many do recognize this interrelationship of the phases of speech training. Many do recognize in practice and in theory that *science is a means but it is the art of speech which makes life effective.*

STUDENT TEACHING IN SPEECH

Mardel Ogilvie

IN a study made by the Committee on Teacher Education[1] six major trends for student teaching are noted. These trends will be examined to discover their effect on the training of the speech teacher, and to discuss with whom the responsibility lies in carrying out their aims: with the College Education Department, with the College Speech Department, with the co-operating high school, or through their combined efforts.

The Development of Full-Time Student Teaching Internship

Internship is a term which has been used rather loosely. However, agreement as to the existence of certain concepts does exist. The term is used quite consistently to indicate that the intern accepts broader duties and responsibilities, and that he serves for the entire school day five days a week. The differences in denotation of the term lie in whether he has graduated with a B.A. degree and is in the early period of his first employment,[2] whether he is making the transition from his student preparation to full-time teaching and, at the same time, doing graduate work in Education,[3] or whether he is still an undergraduate undertaking off-campus job training and participating in the regular program of the school.[4]

Educators agree upon the basic tenets that the teacher is undertaking an internship in order to become well acquainted with the philosophy, methods and operation of a school, and that the participation in activities is broader in scope than student teaching.[5] The experience is on-the-job preparation for the new teacher; he receives guidance both from an older teacher and a college supervisor. This direction includes integration of theory and practice, opportunities to understand boys and girls, to enter the life of the community, and to participate in experiences which will help the student teacher to get along with others.

The Committee on Teacher Education[6] in its use of the term indicates that students are sent out of the college environment and its community. Students live in, and become a part of, the community and the school. They observe and teach at different levels. They participate in the entire school program including the counselling activities, faculty meetings, group deliberations of teachers, and assist in the co- or extracurricular services of the school.

For the speech teacher, participation in the all-day school life and the out-of-class activities is particularly important. The speech teacher's program is often flexible and is likely to be complex; therefore, the only way for the student teacher to understand the job accurately is to be with the directing teacher all

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[1] Committee on Teacher Education, *Improvement of Teacher Education* (Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1946).

[2] J. E. Bohn, "Adequate Preparation for Successful Teaching," *School Executive*, 69 (May 1950), pp. 64-5.

[3] C. D. Neal, "Internship in Teacher Training," *Education*, 71 (Nov. 1950), pp. 183-9.

[4] C. L. Bishop, "Selection of Teacher Interns," *Journal of Educational Research*, 41 (May 1948), pp. 687-94.

[5] O. Clem, "The Program of Student Teaching in Secondary Education at the University of Miami," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 34 (March 1948), pp. 143-9.

[6] Committee on Teacher Education, *Improvement of Teacher Education.*

day. He may be doing speech improve-
ment with the freshmen in the morning,
helping a junior high school group with
an assembly program in the afternoon,
and coaching the high school salutator-
ian after school. If the student teacher
sees all of the activities, he will be able
to understand the underlying philoso-
phy of the speech program.

Furthermore, if he is in the school
the entire day and participates actively
in its life, he will see the relationship of
the various out-of-class activities to each
other, to the speech work, and to the
program of the school as a whole. A
speech teacher, whether he wills it or
not, counsels and guides high school
students. Because his class tends to be
more informal, and because he usually
directs extra-curricular activities, he
often knows the students better than
other teachers. The student teacher
should, therefore, have experience with
the counselling program of the school.
He should know its principles and its
mode of operation. If it possesses a non-
directive technique of counselling, he
should know exactly what the procedure
stands for and realize his part in the
total picture.

Attending faculty meetings will give
him a feeling for the part each teacher
plays in the school program, for the
problems of the school, and how they
are handled. In his group discussion
courses, he has been trained to be part
of a discussion group. This training
should serve him in good stead at a
meeting of the faculty. He will realize
how problems are defined and how
group solutions and decisions are
reached. This preparation will help him
become a part of the democracy of the
school system in which he will teach.

As a teacher, he will direct debates,
school plays, choral reading choirs, and
discussion groups. In his training he
should observe and participate in these
projects. He, with the aid of his direct-
ing teacher and supervisor, will evalu-
ate these extra-curricular services in
terms of pupils' growth.

A speech teacher must be an integral
part of the community. If in his under-
graduate days, he participates in the ac-
tivities of a community, he will be bet-
ter prepared to be a member of the com-
munity in which he will teach. The
speech teacher is often asked to lead dis-
cussions, suggest forum topics, give a
review of a play, read poetry, or to act
as parliamentarian for a group. In his
student days, he gets the feeling of adult
groups, begins to understand them, and
comes to be a warm, friendly part of the
group.

It is the responsibility of the college
to see that the student teacher can re-
main in a school a full day. Often sched-
uling of classes seems an insurmounta-
ble obstacle. In most cases, these sched-
ules can be adjusted. In some cases, it
may be necessary to bring the student
back to the campus for a summer school
in order to make the full day of teach-
ing feasible.

It is the responsibility of the college
supervisor and of the directing high
school teacher to see that the student
teacher has opportunities to participate
in different classes at different levels, and
in the out-of-class and extra-curricular
activities. The directing teacher should
be selected because of his skill in lead-
ership, human relations, group processes,
and evaluation procedures,[7] all of which
will help him in guiding the prospective
teacher. He will also help introduce the
student to community life.

*Fusion of Student Teaching with Other
Experiences Directed Toward the Pro-
fessional Preparation of Teachers.*

There has been a tendency to move
away from numerous short courses in

[7] K. Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools*
(New York, 1950), Chapter I.

Education to broader ones, which provide greater continuity and integration of experience. This is part of a movement to fuse and integrate the training of the teacher. Cooperation between those teaching education courses and those doing the supervision of speech teachers is accepted procedure. Some of the subject matter in the areas of education and speech are related as the solving of problems through group discussion, the reliance on group decisions, and the development of the kind of communication that furthers better human relationships. Historically, Quintilian's description of the training of the orator relates the two fields. The fusion of education courses, of course, is within the province of the Education Department; however, the speech supervisor may well take the initiative in seeking the cooperation of the Education Department. For example, conferences with the student teacher, the speech supervisor, and those who teach the education courses will often help in group deliberation of a problem and its solution. The conference will also cut down barriers between the two fields.

Provision of Experiences with Children, Schools and Communities before Entrance into Student Teaching.

Students should have ample opportunity to observe children, to learn to understand them, and to discover what to expect from them in behavior in many different situations. They should be able to identify symptoms of adolescent behavior objectively. They will then be able to guide children more effectively. The responsibility for creating these opportunities belongs jointly to the Speech and Education Departments.

The Education Department will provide opportunities for observance of children in different school and play situations. Child Development courses help the student to understand children's actions. However, the College Speech Clinic, with its meetings with the parents of children, its elaborate testing programs, its frequent consultations with psychological and medical specialists, and its carefully noted case histories, can help the speech teacher to understand the handicapped child. There are many other avenues open to the speech major: participation in the college dramatic and debate organizations, and in the Speaking Bureau of the College. In this last activity, he can meet the adult members of the town in which he is living. He may be part of the little theatre group of the town; he may participate in local forums or perform on the local radio station. The supervisor in speech should be alert to suggest such experiences to the student. It is to be hoped that the supervisor will get to know those interested in teaching speech in their freshman year and follow their careers carefully.

Provision of Opportunity for Teachers to Observe and Participate in Laboratory and Public Schools.

The student should have a chance to observe and share in experiences which anticipate future educational trends, as well as in schools which are typical. He should observe classes made up of children with different backgrounds, to see teaching that is highly academic and teaching that is tailored to the children. The provision of these opportunities is primarily the responsibility of the Education Department. The Speech Supervisor, however, can be of inestimable help in discovering classrooms in which experiences will help to round out the observation schedule of the student. At least half of the student teachers throughout the country do their student

teaching in public city schools.[8] There-
fore, the speech supervisor should know
a high proportion of the speech teachers
in the city, and should have a fairly in-
timate knowledge of the type of work
that is done in their classrooms.

*Development of Continuous Teacher
Planning between College Supervisor,
the Directing Teacher, and the Prospec-
tive Teacher.*

The aim is not to direct the prospec-
tive teacher but to guide him. This
guidance is best achieved cooperatively
by the supervisor, teacher, and student.
The college supervisor should make
available to the high school teacher the
material which will enable him to know
the student; together they will work out
and evaluate experiences which will help
him.

For example, one high school class de-
cided to attend a professional play. The
choice of the play was the result of co-
operative deliberation of the children,
the student teacher, and the directing
teacher. The planning for the trip was
done by both teachers and the children.
The discussion of the play was led by
the student teacher. The evaluation of
the attendance at the performance was
first made in the classroom, and later
in a meeting of the directing teacher,
student teacher, and college supervisor.

In another case, a lesson in pronun-
ciation was planned by the class, teacher,
and student. The lesson was taught.
The students discussed the purpose of
the lesson and what they had achieved
from it. The supervisor, high school
teacher, and student evaluated and
agreed on some procedures and dis-

agreed on others. This discussion in
turn set off a second one in the speech
faculty of the high school on certain
procedures in teaching pronunciation.

*Emphasis on Evaluation of Student
Teaching.*

Evaluation is the responsibility of
both the directing teacher and the col-
lege supervisor. It can only be achieved
satisfactorily through many three-way
discussions. From these, both the direct-
ing teacher and the supervisor will be
helped in learning to what extent the
student profited from his experiences
and to what degree he recognized and
took advantage of opportunities. The
student teacher will have kept records:
anecdotal observation guides, analysis
of problems he faced in the classroom,
participation in activities, a diary, and
summaries of experiences. The student,
teacher, and supervisor examine these,
and the student is helped to evaluate
his experiences over long periods.

After a particular lesson, the directing
teacher may lead the discussion, or if
the supervisor is present, he may do so.
Questions as suggested by Wiles[9] will be
asked: What pleased you most? What
worked well? How could the experience
have been made more meaningful to the
group? If you were teaching the same
thing again, how would you change it?
Other questions which will help the
student to analyze his own teaching are:
Did you keep the discussion on the is-
sues and moving forward? Were the
students responsive? Did you enjoy
teaching?

Since the directing teacher is with the
student over longer periods of time, his
influence will be greater than that of
the supervisor. The guidance of the
student in teaching will be largely his.

[8] L. J. Stiles, "Organization of Student Teach-
ing in Universities," *Journal of Educational
Research,* 40 (May, 1947), pp. 706-12.

P. R. Grim, "Certain Administrative Phases
of Student Teaching," Education Research Bul-
letin, 27 (April, 1948), pp. 85-9.

C. L. Bishop, "Supervision of Teaching In-
ternships," *Education Research Bulletin,* 27
(May, 1948), pp. 125-32.

[9] Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools,* p.
262.

PROBLEMS INHERENT IN A CLINICAL SPEECH TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAM—THEIR EXPOSITION AND SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

Elmer E. Baker, Jr. and Martin A. Sokoloff

INTRODUCTION

EVERY year new and increasing demands are being made upon workers in the field of speech therapy. These new demands are partly the result of the elaboration and differentiation of techniques within the field itself. In addition, this type of therapy is being increasingly recognized by the medical and psychiatric specialists. The desire to utilize the efforts of speech therapists by other specialists encourages the extension of speech therapy into many areas yet unexplored.

In many hospitals throughout the country speech therapy has become an integral part of the work in Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. The incorporation of speech work into these programs necessitates the speech therapist's entry into the problems of multiple sclerosis, parkinsonism, bulbar palsy, pseudo-bulbar palsy, laryngectomies, adult aphasias, dysphonias subsequent to operation or trauma, etc. Most of these dysfunctions occur in the adult age groups, but at the same time the therapist is called upon to administer therapy to the adolescent and young-child groups in connection with cerebral palsy, cleft palate, mental retardation, bulbar poliomyelitis, meningitis,

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congenital aphasia, and hearing deficiencies.

This marked diversity of syndromes and the different methodologies required by various age-levels impose a formidable task upon the speech therapist. Not only must he be able to construct and execute effective therapeutic programs, but he must learn to function in widely varying administrative systems, and as a member of a rehabilitation team. These tasks require a great deal of concrete experience in grappling with the problems at first hand, together with a theoretical command of all aspects of each rehabilitory problem.

GENERAL PROBLEMS OF INSTITUTING A TRAINING PROGRAM

In establishing a training program focused on the realistic preparation of students for all phases of speech therapy the educator is confronted with several major problems. First, it is essential to supply a patient source which will provide all the types of difficulties that the student will encounter in professional work. Second, the training program must be so situated that full use can be made of ancillary services for complete diagnoses and well-rounded therapy. Third, the training program must be so situated that there is ready access to all kinds of necessary equipment which must be used by a speech clinician in professional activities. Fourth, there must be adequate supervision at all times for guidance and

evaluation. These four requirments are absolutely essential to a realistic and meaningful training program.

Specific Problems Presented by Student Therapists

The aforegoing has emphasized the problems presented in the establishment of a training program. Let us consider now problems found to be demonstrated frequently by beginning therapists.

The current philosophy of rehabilitation of any defect correctly emphasizes the importance of the whole person and the effect of the defect upon the entire functioning of the individual. As a result of the misinterpretation of this principle and of naive enthusiasm, students often display a tendency to carry out the entire rehabilitation program themselves. Instead of concentrating on the speech aspects of the case, they will attempt to assume the role of psychologist, social worker, vocational-counselor, and, at times, even the role of the physician. Since the amount of time that a patient may spend in speech therapy is necessarily limited, this usurpation of related specialties will decrease the benefits to be derived from the proper channeling of the therapist's attention. A corollary problem is the tendency of beginners to be well grounded in the basic tenets of a therapeutic philosophy, but to lack a thorough knowledge and command of specific clinical techniques.

This self-same enthusiasm, combined with a lack of experience, encourages many beginners to lose sight of the practical limits of therapy, an especially dangerous over-sight in working with patients whose speech disorders have an organic etiology. Tendencies of this nature often lead to intense frustration of the patient because he feels that he is incapable of satisfactory progress. In addition, the therapist becomes frustrated because he feels inadequate in helping the patient achieve the established goals.

Along with the establishment of impractical goals there often occurs a too ambitious pace that is set by the inexperienced clinician. This is often the result of the therapist's self-identification with the patient, and his consequent desire for improvement impairs his objectivity. The loss of objectivity encourages the therapist to become emotionally involved with the problems of the patient, and to see much improvement where there is little or none.

One of the chief tasks of the speech clinician, be he in a public school, a hospital, or a rehabilitation center, is the making of diagnoses. Because of the fear of being in error or of overlooking some salient symptom, student-therapists tend to avoid the diagnostic situation. They prefer to be told what the difficulty is, and once this hurdle is overcome, they are eager to work with the patient. Probably part of the fear of diagnosing can be attributed to faulty preparation—students often lack adequate diagnostic materials and techniques. Very often they have the theory in hand and can verbalize about a diagnosis most freely, but need to work with the actual tools they have constructed.

One of the fundamental difficulties a beginning therapist experiences is that of individual lesson construction. So often the same care that is displayed by a student teacher in constructing a class lesson is lacking when that student works with an individual patient. Perhaps the informality of the individual lesson encourages this faulty preparation. Whatever the cause, beginning students are often deficient in providing in the individual therapy situation

varied learning experiences that are rich with materials and creativity. An individual therapeutic session requires an over-all view—pre-lesson relaxation, specific drills aimed at specific goals, the introduction of new materials that logically follow the old, and the applications of things learned. The factor of pre-lesson planning and the securing of material cannot be stressed too forcibly for the beginning therapist.

A common failure among beginning therapists is the lack of ability, during the organization of the therapy program, to plan the work in a sequential arrangement of increasing difficulty of tasks. Too often a student is absorbed in obtaining a particular performance and ignores the requisite steps leading up to that performance. For instance, desirous of obtaining a good "t" sound, the therapist may ignore drill activities which involve elevation of the tongue. This would be a crucial error in working with a cerebral palsied child who is unable to lift his tongue from the floor of his mouth.

Sometimes a student therapist secures a careful and correct diagnosis, and plans his work accordingly. Within the lesson the child does not always react as the therapist has anticipated. Experienced teachers sense this kind of difficulty almost before it occurs, and correspondingly shift their technique immediately to attack the problem from a new vantage point. Beginners frequently do not possess this flexibility and its necessary perception. They sometimes pursue a lesson plan regardless of what happens and do not constantly evaluate the effect of each portion of the lesson as it occurs. The courage and necessary ingenuity to alter the lesson plan while the session is in progress are two of the most difficult qualities of clinical teaching to acquire.

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

The establishment of a complete training program for speech therapy students must be predicated on the availability of certain essential facilities. In order to insure a satisfactory patient source, it is usually necessary that the training institution secure the cooperation of a hospital, whose services are free, to provide cases with medical and organic etiologies. In addition, the cooperation of a school system should be sought to provide cases of lisping, stuttering, articulatory disorders, infantilisms, and functional voice disorders. By tapping both of these sources the student therapists are given the opportunity to experience the wide scope of speech therapy as it is functioning in many of its new roles.

By working with a hospital which does not charge fees, the student therapists will be ensured of a constant supply of patients with an adequate variety of types of cases, regardless of the patients' ability to pay. For the optimum training of student therapists, the length, frequency, and duration of patients' treatments should not be determined by their financial situations. This arrangement will also provide a ready source of ancillary medical services. Consultations may easily be provided by otolaryngological, neurological, orthopedic, oral surgical, psychiatric, and other departments, in order that etiologic and complicating medical problems may be eliminated or treated before speech therapy is initiated. Student therapists may be scheduled to attend and participate in clinics and conferences in the ancillary medical departments, so that they develop an insight into, and an understanding of, some of the underlying medical aspects of many speech disorders.

Since the facilities and equipment

available in the speech department of the training institution are often limited by physical and budgetary considerations, cooperation with all other departments of the training institution may result in the availability of additional facilities and equipment. Students of the physics department, for example, may be of assistance in the construction and maintainance of electrical equipment used in the speech clinic. The psychology department may be eager to assume the tasks of administering psychological test batteries to the children before the therapy commences. The departments of special education may be interested in originating training devices and materials that would be applicable in the speech therapy situation. All of these rich resources can be utilized once good inter-departmental rapport has been established.

In an optimally organized speech therapy student-training program, deliberate emphasis should be placed upon the concept of the speech therapist's actions as a member of a rehabilitation team. This concept should be strengthened by theoretical discussions in the classroom and practical demonstrations in the speech clinic of the role of the speech therapist in a well-organized and smoothly run total organization. The student should be made aware of the need for securing the services of the psychologist, psychiatrist, otolaryngologist, plastic surgeon, physiatrist, vocational counselor, physical or occupational therapist, and the social worker. Not only must he be aware of the need for cooperation, but he must be familiar with the protocol and the administrative procedures involved within the functioning of the hospital's framework. The student should be thoroughly acquainted with the types of cases which each of these

specialists can serve, and should be able to interpret 'the results of their work in accordance with the speech needs of each patient. He should also be made clearly aware of the limitations of speech therapy, and be prepared to seek additional help and guidance in all cases which require them.

A prerequisite to the clinical training of the student therapist is a thorough grounding of that student in the specifics of his own specialty. This should include a comprehensive exposition of funtional and organic disabilities of all kinds which may result in defective speech. Pathological conditions such as Parkinson's disease, bulbar poliomyelitis, meningitis, and other involvements of the central nervous system produce speech anomalies and should be carefully considered.

Besides complete descriptions of all the abnormal speech syndromes, the students should experience clinical observations which will supplement the verbalism of the classroom. These observations and discussions can pave the way for a meticulous consideration of diagnostic tools and techinques for determining the exact nature of each speech difficulty. It is then a logical transition to proceed to a detailed analysis of step-by-step progressions of specific therapeutic techniques to be used for each variety of speech defect. Strong emphasis should be placed on the need for the systematization of a well-organized plan of action, both for the total course of treatment and for the individual lesson as well.

Because there are as many therapeutic approaches to the treatment of any speech disorder as there are disorders, it is important that all student therapists be thoroughly grounded in as many approaches as possible, so that they may select the approach which

they believe to be most effective for working with a particular patient. In this manner, the therapists will avoid the pitfalls of being schooled in only one approach to a defect or disorder and being forced to adjust the patient to fit the therapy. Judicious selection of the type of therapy to be used will result in more effective treatment.

Effective implementation of the foregoing principles of a speech therapy training program can be achieved only by an extensive program of supervised clinical experience. This program should be well organized so that students have ample opportunity to observe qualified professional therapists working with patients who demonstrate varied types of speech disorders. The student should then observe a therapist working with the patient with whom the student will work, and discuss his observation with the therapist. Only then should the student be allowed to work under close supervision with his patient. The student should organize lesson plans under the guidance of the supervising therapist and select materials for use with his patient. After each lesson the supervising therapist should hold a critique on the student's lesson plan, therapeutic techniques, and use of creative materials. This may be done in a group situation, so that all the students can benefit by the experience of each one. It is imperative that all students receive a thorough grounding in all types of diagnostic and evaluative speech tests, including experience in administration and guidance in interpreting and evaluating their results.

Since many speech disorders result from organic pathology, either to the speech mechanism itself or to the central nervous system, a complete return of normal speech function may often be precluded. It is therefore highly important for the student to become fully aware of the nature and etiology of these disorders, and the limitations imposed by them, so that the goals of therapy may be realistically arrived at. Frequent and regularly scheduled group discussions of cases will assist in eliminating therapeutic goals that produce frustration and tension on the part of both therapist and patient.

An effective device in increasing students' effectiveness as therapists is to rate them qualitatively on various aspects of their abilities. Some attributes rated are: self-confidence, ability to establish good relationship with patients, degree of preparation, organizations of lessons, choice of materials, creativity in devising materials, objectivity, the amount of insight displayed into the patient's difficulties, and flexibility in altering plans to fit the change of a patient's attitude.

RATING SCALES AS DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENTS IN DISCUSSION

Laura Crowell

TRAINING in group discussion means, very simply, training in co-operative thinking. But such training itself is far from simple. Each student must learn to reason from trustworthy and adequate sources with direction and purpose; each student must develop those personal and social attitudes and skills which will liberate his highest potentialities and those of the other members of the group. The prime objective of the teacher of discussion is, then, to help each student make significant advances toward realization of these highly valued goals.

Since these goals must be achieved with students of widely differing profiles of personality and ability, it is necessary that the teacher find out at intervals the trouble-spots in each one's development. These areas in which his advancement is lagging behind rightful expectation must be pointed out clearly. Only when his specific difficulties are carefully diagnosed can the student be freed to make satisfying improvement.[1] Furthermore, such recognition of his "specific inadequacies" will motivate him toward their removal.[2] Talking over the student's work in conference and in the classroom as well as writing penetrating and stimulating critiques: these methods are in wide use to speed appropriate development, but they will function more impressively if suitable diagnosis has preceded them. Hence, one of the pressing problems facing the teacher of discussion is to silhouette the weaknesses of his students against the light of general and specific objectives of the course.

In this study of rating scales as diagnostic instruments only those which ask a decision on the degree of effectiveness of leadership or membership behaviors in group discussion are considered. Thus, shift-of-opinion ballots, check lists and scales showing changes in ranking of solutions are not included. Scales to be used in the judging of discussion contests are not the subject matter here, despite certain similarities. This study is limited to scales which are to be used in the classroom for improving the students' skill in the use of discussion methods. The hypothesis to be examined here is that the individual teacher can build rating scales which can be used effectively in diagnosing student needs.

The writer has investigated the present use of rating scales in college courses in discussion. Teachers of discussion in forty major American colleges and universities offering courses partly or wholly in informal group discussion answered questions on their practices. Their replies showed:

19 use rating scales as teaching devices;
21 do not.

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[1] "Diagnosis tends to reveal difficulties due to poor methods of work, emotional blocking, poor environment, personality difficulties, and other causes, and hence to free the learner for effective pursuit of a desired end." Gerald A. Yoakam and Robert G. Simpson, *Modern Methods and Techniques of Teaching* (New York, 1949), p. 232.

[2] Paul Klapper, "Current Guides to Effective Teaching," *The Journal of General Education*, V (July, 1951), p. 282.

Of the 19 using rating scales,
  13 use more than one scale;
   6 use scales made by others (with or without modification);
  16 have devised a scale (or scales) of their own.

The approximately equal division into those who use the rating scale as a teaching device and those who do not is worthy of notice. Important also is the high percentage (84) of those who have prepared their own scales, and four of the six who use scales made by others also employ ones made by themselves. Thus, two inferences seem justified: that the value of the rating scale as a teaching device in discussion is not yet clearly established; and that the individually prepared scale is strongly preferred to the ready-made one. Thus, present usage in the forty institutions covered in this investigation seems to support the hypothesis that the individual teacher *can* build rating scales which can be used effectively in teaching discussion.

The adaptability of the rating scale to the particular problem of teaching discussion methods should be considered. The classroom situation itself must be kept in mind. Because of large enrollments, some of the students participate in discussion while the others listen—not as an audience but as a friendly, over-hearing group. The participants, as individuals and as a group, attempt to pursue the common goal. Some interaction occurs which blocks or hinders progress; some is forward-moving and group-satisfying. The atmosphere thickens and clears again; the thread of thought tangles or pulls strongly. Every member's actions (ideas, voice inflections, bodily movements, word choices, etc.) bring reactions from other group members. These reactions do not always rise to verbal expression but they nevertheless condition the whole work of the group. That each member should

learn to know how his actions may be interpreted by the others and to understand and appreciate the play of interaction within the group is essential to his progress.

It is significant that no one of the non-users of the rating scale brought the customary charge of unreliability of results. In discussion this variability of results is of distinct value. In fact, one of the teachers of discussion pointed out the effectiveness of the rating scale in giving "leaders and participants an insight into how others feel about them." Reliability of results is not a vital criterion in the use of the rating scale as a diagnostic device: the importance of the student's knowing how others judge his actions is not vitiated by the likelihood that their judgments are not accurate appraisals of his actions. As a member of a group he is open at all times to random assessment by the other members as to his sincerity, his dependability, his purposefulness, fairness, and good-will. These assessments will be subject to all manner of differences among raters—differences of understanding, bias, leniency, susceptibility to the halo effect—but they will be the bases upon which the group proceeds. Thus, subjective evaluation by others (his group-mates and/or persons similar to them) is what the student particularly needs. Rating scales are efficient ways of channeling this subjective evaluation into areas important for consideration at the moment.[3] Herein

[3] William A. McCall has pointed out: "It is possible that how much intelligence people think an individual has is of greater moment than how much he really has." In this vitally significant area, ratings are delicately accurate. "They are even more significant in the case of personality traits that have no existence outside the mind of the rater. Thus, an individual's force, kindliness, tact, and beauty are in very essence a matter of the subjective impression created on others." *Measurement* (New York, 1939), p. 311.

lies the peculiar adaptability of rating scales for diagnosis in discussion classes.

Reasons for using rating scales given by teachers employing them include these values characteristic of any effective diagnostic instrument: motivation, variety, attention focused on strengths and weaknesses, specific basis for class analysis, and individual conference. An added value is realized when class members not participating in the immediate discussion are charged with checking rating scales for some or all of the discussants: the task of making the necessary judgments encourages critical listening.

Despite the apparent fitness of the rating scale for diagnosis in discussion, fewer than half of the teachers of discussion make use of it. Why? Among the comments offered voluntarily by those not using rating scales are these:

1. "they tend to formalize and stereotype the discussions";
2. students tend to check the scale "in a superficial and harmless manner";
3. "rating scales are artificial and of little stimulus to the student";
4. scales are "worthless" because discussion situations differ so widely that the same behaviors are not always desirable in the same degree;
5. "we want to train individuals *in relation to the group* and rating of the individual seems to emphasize his separation from the group";
6. we do not use a rating scale "yet."

All six of these comments raise pertinent questions which can be considered most fruitfully in regard to individually prepared scales. The first three problems seem to concern the integration of the scale with the content and purpose of the course, and might conceivably be largely removed by changed procedures of construction and use of the scale.

The fourth comment is based upon the claim that one scale is not adaptable to a variety of situations. It is suggested further that a high degree of tact in a leader might be praiseworthy in one situation whereas a measure of bluff straight-forwardness might bring results in another. Yet it is not impossible to arrange a scale in which each item would require evaluation of the factor in terms of the needs of the total situation in which it is being observed. Thus the variation in discussions and discussants would be taken into account.

The fifth comment goes deeply into the objectives of the discussion course. But it is exactly the student's *relation to the group* that falls under assessment in a well-arranged rating scale; his perception of the dynamics of the situation and his reactions to these needs are the behaviors toward which the rating scale reaches. The relationship of discussant to group is emphasized rather than destroyed.

The declaration of two teachers of discussion that they do not "yet" use the rating scale in their classes discloses another value of the custom-made scale. The assumption underlying these statements is that these instructors agree to the desirability of a scale but lack the readiness for its adoption. The obstacle may be incomplete differentiation of goals for the course or failure to discover a satisfactory scale. But a scale built by the teacher could change with the development of goals and could, in the meantime, provide an efficient diagnostic instrument at each stage.

These claims for the diagnostic efficiency of the individually prepared rating scale have been largely based on its adaptability. The formulation of the rating instrument to suit that which is being rated is well-known procedure in industry; experimentation has shown custom-made scales for job evaluation

definitely superior to ready made systems.[4]

If, then, the custom-made scale is efficient in diagnosis for discussion and is able to avoid the usual charges against rating scales, how may the instructor prepare a scale to obtain these advantages? He must make decisions on three major phases of his scale: (1) the items; (2) the degree of differentiation; (3) the arrangement.

The establishment of the items is, certainly, the crux of the scales effectiveness. With the long-range and the immediate objectives of the course in mind, the instructor lists the specific aspects of behavior under consideration. It is evident that these formulations will have more meaning for the students if they are partners to the wording of the concepts.[5] Explanations may accompany the concise listing of the aspects in the scale or may be made sufficiently clear through oral presentation.

Some persons will claim that the measuring instrument should be standardized. Without questioning the value of experimental validation, it may be asserted that the teacher with neither tools nor time for such refinement should prepare and use instruments constructed specifically out of the materials and goals of his course. Doubtless it will be impossible without standardization to prevent some intercorrelation of items; even where some overlapping occurs the scale may have value. Such direction of attention to individual factors will help in the making of an overall rating and will provide a diagnostic basis for discussions of progress.[6]

In the rating scales used in the college classrooms reported in this study there is much higher similarity in the items used to rate participants than in those used to rate leaders. Many of the scales are similar to the Ewbank and Auer one in assessing participants on the following abilities, expressed in a variety of ways:

> knowledge of subject
> analysis
> cooperative thinking
> speaking skill
> courtesy

In such scales the quantity and quality of the demonstrations of an ability or attitude are not differentiated. It is impossible to tell from the rating whether the demonstrations were of promising quality but too infrequent, or of outstanding number without high quality. The writer shows her belief in the importance of group-relationships maintained by each participant by using the five categories:

sensitivity to others
objectivity of contributions
worth (to group progress) of information presented
worth of thinking (on basis of group or own information) done orally
acceptance of full share of group responsibility

These categories have meaning for students of discussion at the University of Washington, but they may be vague and ambiguous for the readers of this article. The especial excellence of custom-built rating scales lies precisely here: items

[4] J. Stanley Gray and Marvin C. Jones, "Ready Made versus Custom Made Systems of Job Evaluation," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXV (February, 1951), p. 14.

[5] One experiment by Bavelas in training observers is pertinent here. He found that one group which participated from the start in the building of the categories "were trained more quickly . . . than were those observers who were told what the categories meant and how they were to be used. . . ." Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch and Stuart W. Cook, *Research Methods in Social Relations, Part Two: Selected Techniques* (New York, 1951), pp. 532-533.

[6] C. E. Jurgensen points out that rating specific traits is valuable even when intercorrelations are high: "This appears particularly true when a primary purpose of ratings is to serve as a basis for a supervisor employee conference on employee progress." "Intercorrelations in Merit Rating Traits," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXIV (August, 1950), p. 242.

selected and formulated out of the concepts examined and demonstrated in a class have a fullness of meaning for those students and that teacher which cannot be otherwise achieved.

In addition to the individual behaviors to be evaluated, the total excellence may be judged. Among the nineteen college discussion classes reporting the use of rating scales there are three approximately equal groupings: one-third average or total the scores on the individual items; one-third have a total effectiveness item independent of the individual items; one-third provide *no* total evaluation. If the scales are to be used specifically for diagnosis, there seems to be no compelling necessity for seeking a total evaluation.

In the construction of a scale it is highly important that the number of items upon which judgment is to be rendered be kept small. To evaluate efficiently, the rater must throughout the discussion be alert to all manifestations related to each factor under consideration. The difficulty of his task grows when he must watch these manifestations in each of the discussions. More of the scales used in the nineteen classrooms referred to in this study use five individual items than any other number.

Items used in the leader rating scales vary from a brief listing of the functions:

ability to introduce the subject and stimulate interest in it,
knowledge of the subject,
ability to direct discussion,
ability to secure cooperative participation,
ability to close discussion—

to an extensive listing of attitudes and behaviors such as "tactfulness" and "adjustability," or of skills such as "skill in handling the various kinds of conflict," and "skill in controlling pace." The Barnlund-Haiman leadership scale makes an interesting attempt at separ-

ating amount and quality by asking two decisions on each of its eight items —first, whether the group received too little, the right amount, or too much of leader activity of this specific type, and, second, how excellent were the attempts which the leader did make. This scale has added value in examining the needs of the specific situation rather than assuming them to be always the same.

Not only do the items differ markedly from one leadership rating scale to another, but also the number of items varies widely: most scales have seven or eight items, but one has twenty. In general, then, there are greater differences among leadership scales than participation scales both in the items themselves and in the number listed. Perhaps the concept of leadership itself has evolved less fully than the concept of participation.

As to degrees of differentiation provided for in both types of scales, five were the most frequent with seven degrees next. Sometimes these degrees were identified by word designations (fair, good, etc.), sometimes with numbers, sometimes with both. An interesting innovation appearing in two scales was the placement of the appropriate number (or abbreviation of the word designation) in each space, leaving the rater to encircle the symbol desired rather than to write it in or check an appropriate column. Another scale which sought a composite total rating succeeded in weighting its items by varying the numbers:

Item 1		1	2	3	4	5
Item 2		2	4	6	8	10
Item 3		1	2	3	4	5

The majority of rating scales use a separate sheet for each participant and for the leader; several, however, place all group members on the page together. The advantage of the separate sheet for

the individual participant lies, of course, in the opportunity of his having for studying and analysis the sheet from each of the raters.

In summary, a study of the rating scales used in these nineteen college classrooms results in these suggestions for the construction of a rating scale for discussion classes:

1. Let the evolution and formulation of the items be so closely associated with the development of the concepts in the class that they have real meaning for students and instructor.
2. Arrange a five-point scale for rating performance on each item, placing the appropriate number in each space. If equivalent importance of items is desired and cannot be effectively achieved in the listing, provide for weighting the more important items by using a higher series of numbers.
3. Provide a space for a summation score, if desired.
4. Provide a space for a general rating of the group.
5. Provide space for comments and suggestions.
6. Use a separate sheet for each person rated.

Application of these suggestions to the concepts of group membership as developed in the writer's classes produces the following scale:

Much of the success doubtless depends upon the manner and spirit of the use of the scale. When the scale is a class product (or somewhat so) and the results are used as bases for class discussion and personal conference, it is likely that the whole procedure will be highly beneficial. Those rated will see clearly the areas where improvement should be made, and this specificity of diagnosis will provide motivation for the improvement.

The raters themselves should benefit through developing the ability to discriminate between various levels of behavior, to distinguish between what is merely "average" performance, and that which is commendable enough to be noted as "good." When the scale is first used, careful comparison with the instructor's ratings will assist the students in differentiating these degrees of excellence. This method of comparison was used in a research study involving nearly one hundred observers in different areas of the country. The training was considered complete when the trainee obtained adequate agreement

DIAGNOSIS OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

Member ....   Date ....

Encircle one number for each item:

	Lacking or in-effective	Poor	Ave.	Good	Exc.
SENSITIVITY TO OTHER MEMBERS	1	2	3	4	5
OBJECTIVITY OF CONTRIBUTIONS	1	2	3	4	5
WORTH (TO GROUP PROGRESS) OF INFORMATION PRESENTED	1	2	3	4	5
WORTH OF THINKING DONE ORALLY ON BASIS OF GROUP (OR OWN) INFORMATION	2	4	6	8	10
ACCEPTANCE OF FULL SHARE OF GROUP RESPONSIBILITY	1	2	3	4	5

Comments and Suggestions: TOTAL SCORE ....

GROUP AS A WHOLE: Poor Ave. Good Exc.   Rater: ....

with the trainer.[7] In the classroom no such identity of evaluation would be desirable because certain variation of rating there gives valuable information to the participant; hence, comparison of student and instructor ratings need not be continued after the differentiation of levels of performance has been satisfactorily established.

The rater should sign his diagnosis sheet so that the instructor can watch his development in evaluation and also for the purpose of heightening his responsibility for careful analysis. Yet the signatures should be removed before the sheets are handed to the person rated: it is important to him to know what was thought about his work, but it is not important to know who had the thought. The instructor's sheet should carry his signature, for it is upon this analysis that the student will wish most to depend.

The following suggestions as to application of the scale have been explained:

1. The results may be effectively used as bases for class discussion and personal conference.
2. The raters should sign their diagnosis sheets but the names should be removed before the sheets are given to the persons rated. The instructor's name should not be removed.
3. When the scale is first used, student ratings should be compared with instructor ratings to establish clear differentiations between levels of performance.

Improvement in cooperative thinking results from specific diagnosis of weakness in the individual. Approximately half of the forty universities and colleges reporting as to the use of the rating scale as a teaching device in discussion use one or more such scales. In almost every case the scale has been devised or modified by the instructor. Custom-made rating scales are peculiarly well adapted to serve the needs of the discussion situation, for they reveal the subjective reactions of the listeners and thus apprise the participant of the effectiveness of his behavior. Used for that purpose the rating scale is not condemned for its low reliability; where necessary, training of raters will increase their agreement in judgment. If appropriate care is taken in constructing the scale and in applying it, the teacher should be able to "free" each of his students to make satisfying improvement.

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[7] Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook, *op. cit.*, p. 532.

SPEECH EDUCATION IN PENNSYLVANIA

Buell Whitehill, Jr.

IN an effort to determine the exact status of speech education in the elementary and secondary schools of Pennsylvania, a very comprehensive survey of the curriculum was made in the spring of 1949. The data present an unusually detailed picture of speech education in one of the largest and wealthiest states in the Union. Although conducted in 1949, it is the belief of the author and other speech educators in Pennsylvania that the data are as pertinent now (1952) as they were in 1949. There has been some slight growth in speech education in the public and parochial schools since 1949, but it has not been significant enough to affect the results of the study.

This article, then, presents a summary

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and an analysis of the results of this survey of speech education in the public and parochial schools on the elementary and secondary levels. The results are presented in three sections: *formal* instruction already offered, *informal* instruction offered, and desires and demands for additional offerings, both formal and informal.

A. PROCEDURE

Pennsylvania has a population of 9,-900,180 (1947). The total public school enrollment in that year was 1,570,757. There were 47,750 enrolled in parochial schools of the state.

A questionnaire was sent, through official channels by the state department of public instruction, to all of the public schools of Pennsylvania. A total of 911 questionnaires was sent, covering all of the district and county school system. Of

TABLE 1

TYPES OF INSTRUCTION ACCORDING TO SIZE OF SCHOOL*

Class of school (by enrollment)	Formal Instruction	Public Speaking	Remedial Speech	Dramatics	Debate	Radio	Other (Choral Speech "Forensics")
Public							
All	N-194 (33%)	28%	19%	24%	16%	12%	1%
A (1200 & above)	N-90 (50%)	25	24	23	15	13	
B (700-1200)	N-47 (34%)	37	17	18	15	13	
C (1-700)	N-57 (22%)	32	12	27	16	11	
Parochial							
All	N-31 (16%)	23	21	26	19	8	3
A (300-700)	N-8 (14%)	23	19	23	23	12	
B (1-300)	N-23 (16%)	22	22	27	18	6	5
Total	225 (29%)	28	19	24	16	12	

*It should be pointed out that many schools, of various sizes, participated in more than one of the types of speech activity. The percentages indicate only *general* distribution among those schools which *have* formal instruction.

these, 581 were returned, or 63% of the total.

The same questionnaire was sent to the parochial schools of all but one of the six Pennsylvania dioceses, Philadelphia. Efforts to have the Philadelphia diocese circulate the questionnaire were unsuccessful. A total of 223 questionnaires was sent out, with 199 being returned, for a percentage of 89. The information received is believed to present an accurate picture of state parochial instruction, however, since the Pittsburgh diocese, which did report, provides the same type of instruction as that offered in Philadelphia.

B. Schools Offering Formal Speech Instruction

Total number of schools offering formal speech instruction was 225, or 29%. Of these, 194 public schools, or 33%, offered instruction, as contrasted with only 31 parochial schools, or 16%.

The table below shows the distribution, in percentages of the various types of speech instruction offered in schools of various enrollments.

As has been noted previously, it was thought important to discover by whom the instruction was given in those schools which *did* have formal speech courses. The following table gives some indica-

TABLE 2
Teachers Giving Instruction, by Size of School

Class of school	Full-Time Speech Teacher	Part-Time Speech Teacher	English Teacher
Public			
All	22%	35%	43%
A	30	44	26
B	17	35	48
C	13	21	66
Parochial			
All	13	31	56
A	0	40	60
B	18	27	55
Total	21%	35%	44%

TABLE 3
Reasons for Not Offering Courses in Speech

Class		No Teacher Available	Cannot Finance Teacher	No Need	Other
Public					
All		29%	61%	9%	
A	(N-89)	32	60	8	
B	(N-90)	35	55	10	
C	(N-208)	25	64	9	2% (No time)
Parochial					
All	(N-168)	59	37	4	
A	(N-50)	59	37	4	
B	(N-118)	59	37	4	
Total	(N-555)	38%	53%	8%	

tion, by school size, of the type of instruction offered.

C. SCHOOLS NOT OFFERING FORMAL INSTRUCTION

Of the total 780 schools reporting, 71% said they did not offer formal instruction in speech; this can be further broken down with 387 (67%) of public schools and 168 (84%) of parochial schools not offering speech courses. Table 3 gives some of the reasons for not offering such courses. The implications

Of 790 school systems answering this question, 558 (71%) indicated that they had some type of extra-curricular speech activity. Of this total, 440 (76%) of public schools and 188 (56%) of parochial schools stated that they provided informal speech instruction on an extra-curricular basis.

Table 4 indicates the distribution of the various activities. Most of the schools reporting had several activities provided. Again, it was desired to know

TABLE 4

TYPES OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Class	Debate	Dramatics	Extemporaneous Speaking	Oral Interpretation	Radio	Other (Assembly Program)
Public						
All (N-440)	14%	35%	18%	19%	13%	2%
A (N-135)	17	30	18	15	18	2
B (N-104)	14	35	18	18	13	2
C (N-201)	12	40	18	19	9	2
Parochial						
All (N-116)	17%	30%	19%	27%	5%	2%
A (N-37)	18	32	19	24	4	3
B (N-81)	16	30	19	28	5	2
Total (N-558)	15	34	18	19	12	2

of the financial problems and needs will be discussed later in connection with other related data. It is significant that a negligible proportion of schools reporting stated that there was "no need."

D. INFORMAL SPEECH INSTRUCTION (Extra-Curricular)

Since is was generally believed that there was a considerable amount of speech activity conducted on an extra-curricular basis, a section of the questionnaire was devoted to an analysis of this type of instruction. It is admittedly impossible to judge the amount of instruction that goes on in those activities, just as it is impossible to determine the amount of instruction that goes on in the formal courses reported. Nevertheless, we do have here some indication of the range and type of activity offered.

who directed these activities, and whether the director was a full or part-time teacher. Of the total reporting, 407 schools stated that the work was directed by a part-time teacher. This is 83% of the schools having extra-curricular speech activities. The schools are broken down as follows:

TABLE 5

SCHOOLS USING A PART-TIME TEACHER TO DIRECT EXTRA-CURRICULAR SPEECH ACTIVITIES

Class	Coached by Part-Time Teacher
Public	
All (N-322)	83%
A (N-99)	80
B (N-71)	82
C (N-152)	86
Parochial	
All (N-85)	83
A (N-28)	30
B (N-57)	85
Total (N-407)	83%

The part-time teacher is usually a regular member of the faculty who devotes a stipulated fraction of his time to directing one of the extra-curricular activities. It would be very desirable to find, in some later survey, precisely what there is no time available for such work, these percentages being significantly higher among the parochial schools. Further analysis is necessary here, to determine why such a percentage (32%) cannot find time for the work.

TABLE 6

REASONS FOR NOT OFFERING EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN SPEECH

Class		No Time	No Teacher	No Need	No Student Interest	No Outside Help Available	Other
Public							
All	(N-141)	24%	52%	2%	5%	17%	
A	(N-44)	31	50	4		15	
B	(N-33)	14	64	4	4	14	
C	(N-64)	26	48	1	6	19	
Parochial							
*All	(N-91)	40	44	2	3	12	
A	(N-31)	46	45		3	6	
B	(N-60)	37	44	3	2	14	
Total	(N-232)	32	48	2	3	15	

*Because of the relatively high percentage of answers indicating "No time" in the parochial answers, the following question was inserted in the questionnaires to those schools: "Would you need or welcome assistance in developing such a program?" All schools answered, with 85% of Class A institutions saying "Yes" and 55% of Class B institutions saying "Yes."

the training of these directors is, since experience indicates that many people working in speech activities have never received formal training in the field.

Where extra-curricular activities were not offered, it was necessary to discover why. The number and percentage of schools not offering such training was low, but it seemed desirable to get information about this lack. Of the 232 schools not offering such instruction, 141 were public schools and 91 were parochial. These represented 24% and 44% of the respective totals. Table 6 indicates a further breakdown.

It is again apparent, as it was in Table 3, that the chief reason for not offering more work in the extra-curricular phases is the lack of trained teachers. This is clearly seen in the "No teacher" (48%) and "No outside help available" (15%) columns. There is a significant percentage of schools, however, which state that

The following tables indicate the desire and interest among all schools in developing a rounded speech program.

TABLE 7

SCHOOLS INTERESTED IN DEVELOPING A PROGRAM OF SPEECH ACTIVITIES

Public Schools	97%
Parochial Schools	76%
All Schools	91%

Since it was desirable to differentiate between *general* speech activities and *special* speech correction programs, a separate table has been prepared to show the interest in that area.

TABLE 8

SCHOOLS INTERESTED IN DEVELOPING A PROGRAM FOR REMEDIAL SPEECH

Public Schools	94%
Parochial Schools	86%
All Schools	91%

The demand for both general and remedial speech programs revealed here

is really very great. There seems to be little question of the interest and desire for such work. The significantly lower demand by parochial schools (76% and 86%) again seems to call for further questioning and analysis.

E. Summary of Public School Speech Education

The results of the survey of speech education in the public schools of Pennsylvania seem to indicate a widespread interest and desire for more speech, both in and extra to the curriculum. This desire is more keen among the public schools of medium size than it is among parochial schools of smaller size. There is a general recognition of the need for more instruction, but non-availability of trained teachers and lack of funds combine to make satisfaction of this need very slow. The lack of funds has long been recognized as the chief deterrent to the development of broader speech curricula in Pennsylvania. The problem is primarily one of educating district school administrators to the point that they will be willing to *allocate* funds to speech education. The fact remains that *the teachers* of 91% of all schools are interested in developing a program of speech activities.

The extra-curricular picture is much brighter, but the lack of trained teachers is still very apparent, especially when we realize that the amount of extra-curricular speech training is very small, with actual student participation and number of events very low. The need for trained directors of forensics, dramatics, and remedial work is perhaps even greater in this area. And the financial problem is even more acute here.

These are problems of an educational and promotional type. They require time and concerted action. And before they can be attacked, we must be able to supply sufficient numbers of well-trained teachers of speech.

A SURVEY OF SPEECH TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF MISSISSIPPI

Virginia Lee Harrison and Harvey Cromwell

THIS article is a report of a study conducted, under the auspices of the Mississippi Speech Association, to obtain a clearer understanding of the extent of the training in oral communication in the public schools of Mississippi and the attitude of public school administrators and teachers regarding the adequacy of existing speech training programs.

The report is based on 70 answers received from a questionnaire mailed to 425 public school administrators and teachers. While 70, or 17 per cent of the number of questionnaires mailed, may not be a sufficient representation for positive conclusions, it is believed, however, the results may be of value to those who would evaluate the need and/or place of training in oral communication in the curricula of the public schools of the State. It is also believed the answers reflect a fairly accurate cross section of the opinion of administrators and teachers since these responses came from schools in which enrollments varied from small to large and that were located in the different sections of the State.

No attempt was made to determine the reliability or validity of the questionnaire. The final form of the questionnaire, however, reflected the opinions and suggestions of two college professors of education, three college professors of speech, two public school

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administrators, and two public school teachers.

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

This section is devoted to a presentation of the data as received.

1. Forty-seven administrators and 20 teachers who returned questionnaires stated that in their opinion the students in their schools were not receiving adequate training in oral communication; one administrator and two teachers felt their schools were providing adequate training.

2. Those who believed their students were not receiving an adequate training in oral communication were requested to check one or more of the following statements:

An adequate training program in oral communication could be obtained by:

a. A one-semester speech course required of all students to be taught at the high school level

b. A two-semester speech course required of all students to be taught at the high school level

c. A speech correction program for those students possessing defective speech habits (stuttering, sound substitution, distortion of sounds, voice disorders, etc.)

d. Speech training as an integrated part of the elementary school curriculum

e. Speech training as an integrated part of the secondary school curriculum (no specific speech course required for all students, but to be accomplished by each teacher requiring improved speech standards in her classes)

f. Regularly scheduled specific class periods devoted to the development of oral communication skills at the grade school level

g. Additional suggestions not included in the above statements.

The answers received, as might be expected, were almost as varied as the possible combinations of the seven items would permit. Although there was no uniformity of agreement regarding a single item or a combination of items, an analysis of the answers reveals several interesting results. 1. Eighty-two per cent of those completing the questionnaire believed an adequate training in oral communication should consist of more than a one or a two-semester speech course required of all students at the high school level. 2. While there were no administrators or teachers who believed adequate training in oral communication could be obtained by a speech correction program for those students possessing defective speech, 33 per cent of them believed that an adequate program should include speech correction for the defectives. 3. Forty-nine per cent believed that an adequate program should include training in speech as an integrated part of the elementary school program. 4. Forty per cent believed that speech training should be included as an integrated part of the secondary school curriculum. Specifically, 16 of the 67 who stated their

1; bcdef, 1; bcdf, 2; bcf, 1; bdf,1; bce, 1; bde, 1; be, 4; bcef, 1; ce, 1; cd, 1; cf, 1; cde, 5; cdf, 1; de, 7; df, 1; and ef, 1. Three offered suggestions under statement g. They were: increased participation in high school dramatics and debate, increased participation in speech activities at the elementary school level, and increased number of public programs that provide opportunity for practice in the speech arts.

In the schools in which an administrator, a speech teacher, and a history teacher believed their students were receiving adequate training in oral communication, the training program in each case consisted of a two-semester elective course in speech at the secondary school level. Two of the schools were reported as including extra-curricular speech activities (debate, discussion, oral reading, student congress, dramatics, public speaking, and radio).

3. Sixty responses, as follows, were received to the request, "Please circle the word which best describes your opinion regarding the following extra-curricular activities as contributing factors to training for effective oral communication:"

Activity	No Value	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
Debate	3	4	7	27	19
Discussion	6	1	15	23	15
Dramatics	1	3	6	29	21
Oral reading	1	3	16	24	16
Public speaking	3	0	3	25	29
Radio	8	4	9	27	12
Youth Congress	15	0	13	24	8

students were not receiving adequate training in oral communication checked statements as follows: a was checked by 8 persons; b, 4; d, 3; and e, 1. The remaining 51 administrators and teachers checked two or more statements as follows: statements a and c (ac) were checked by 1 person; ad, 5; ae, 3; acd, 1; ace, 1; acf, 1; bc, 2; bd, 2; bcd, 1; bcde,

It is interesting to note the high regard administrators and teachers apparently hold for extra-curricular speech activities as contributing factors to training in oral communication. It is also interesting to note that although none of the schools required all students to take a course in speech and less than one-third offered it as an elective (three

offered a one-semester course; 17, a two-semester course), 60, or 85 per cent of those responding, reported their students participated in extra-curricular speech activities. The type of extra-curricular speech activities available and the number of schools reporting participation in each were as follows: dramatics, 50; discussion, 42; oral reading, 37; public speaking, 34; debate, 29; radio, 22; and student congress, 12. It should be pointed out, however, that no explanation was made regarding the extent of the activities or the per cent of the student body who participated in them.

4. The next group of questions dealt with the status of the speech teacher. The following information was reported. Twenty-three schools employed a speech teacher. The salaries of five of the 23 were paid by private tuition. Of the 18 paid by city or school boards, two taught speech on a full-time basis; four, half-time; two, one-third; seven less than one-third of their teaching time; and three directed extra-curricular speech activities but taught no classes in speech.

The number of college semester hours in speech and the type of speech activity in which they participated while in college were also reported for the 23 teachers. The range in number of college hours completed in speech was from zero to 60. Four of the teachers reported no college credit in speech, eleven had completed less than twelve hours, and eight more than 24 hours of credit. Fourteen of the 23 had participated in college dramatics, eleven in debate, eight in oral reading, eight in public speaking, four in radio, and two in discussion and youth legislatures.

Conclusions

Based on the data reported in the preceding section, several conclusions regarding the extent and adequacy of training in oral communication in the public schools of Mississippi seem justified. However, all the conclusions derived from this study apply in their unrestricted sense only to the experimental conditions under which the data were obtained. With this restriction in mind, the following conclusions are projected:

1. Adequate training in oral communication for all students is not available in the public schools of Mississippi.

2. Adequate training in oral communication should consist of more than a one or two-semester speech course required of all students at the high school level.

3. Extra-curricular speech activities are considered as strong contributing factors in oral communication.

4. The majority of the public schools provide some form of extra-curricular speech activities.

5. Approximately one-half of the teachers directing speech programs in the public schools have received inadequate college training in speech.

A NON-CREDIT COURSE IN
BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING

Raymond H. Barnard

IN colleges of business administration, law schools, and even in liberal arts colleges, the course in *Speechmaking in Business and the Professions* has proved to be a popular and serviceable one. What it really amounts to is a course in public speaking geared to the needs of business students and those who intend to go into such professions as business, law, medicine, and teaching.

I wish to consider the course, however, which I have taught a number of times, in its one aspect of a non-credit course offered to the military, business houses and firms, and independent groups under the auspices of a community college in a large university.

The course normally runs for ten weeks, meeting two hours a week at one session or more flexibly according to the needs of the particular group being serviced. Usually, we have not had a textbook unless the group has expressed a desire for one, nor has there been collateral reading, although we give them a bibliography if members wish it. A selective bibliography of books found useful for such a course is included with this discussion.

The emphasis is upon individual speaking because that seems to be the almost unanimous desire of those registering. "To get up on my hind legs and talk effectively; that's what I want," is the way one man expressed it. However, because of the emphasis in recent years upon business conference and group dynamics, we do try to include features

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of each in our discussions of the ideas in individual speeches and have two meetings devoted to informative and persuasive interviews.

One of the problems faced in such a course on a non-credit basis is the heterogeneousness of people in the group. Even though the military, for instance, will limit its enrollment to a particular group, such as field officers, company officers, or civilian personnel, or a business firm may include only department heads or junior executives, there is, nevertheless, often a wide disparity in matters of educational training, age, occupations, interests, aptitudes, and even attitudes toward and experience with the speaking situation. Some may never have spoken in public before; others may be "seasoned veterans" in the speaking role. The instructor has to keep in mind these individual differences and strike a lowest common denominator of interest and difficulty without stultifying the efforts of the better speakers in the group.

The instructor of such a course needs to realize some very real facts in teaching such students. One is that since there is no required attendance, no grades, and no tests, he has to keep up the interest of the group from one session to another or he will find a serious dropping-off in attendance. People will "stick" if they feel they are improving and growing, but are quick to drop out or will attend irregularly if they feel that the course has little to offer them personally.

Another disillusioning fact is that one

cannot expect too-careful preparation. The students are busy people and have little time to prepare. What they say must come out of their personal or work experiences. Any assignment that requires wide reading or library reference work is doomed to failure. Hence, the emphasis should be on choice of topic or assignment that will come within the range of their experience and interest. This teaches us that as far as delivery is concerned, we should stress the importance of extemporaneous speaking, of talking from an outline, and of establishing the criteria of direct speaking and communicativeness rather than the embellishments of linguistic style or rhetoric.

A course of this kind must be very practical and down-to-earth. These people have little use for formal classroom lectures upon the niceties of rhetorical style. They want criticism—and lots of it—and this criticism, as much as possible, should be woven into the particular theoretical principle that is being illustrated that day. Similarly, they need to have the assignment for next time—and any theoretical material that is involved—thoroughly explained beforehand. They want to know "how" to go about preparing and what will be looked for.

In criticizing, the teacher must emphasize the good points more than the bad—or, consider both together. Praise is a stimulant to all people, but it is not necessary to flatter or gloss over glaring faults. "Lay it on the line," if justified. If some criticism is too personal to be given before the class, the teacher should take the particular student aside for private help. It is probably best to have a few speeches first—not follow the same speaking order every time—followed by criticism. Do not delay criticism too long, especially if the first

speakers illustrate a point that you either wish the class to get away from, or contrariwise, to emulate. Before the "break"—and it is best to have one—give all the criticism on the speeches presented up to that point so that you can start fresh after the break.

Probably it would be better to call this process "evaluation" rather than "criticism" because "criticism" often implies destructive rather than constructive aid. After the first few times, since evaluation takes so long, I usually employ a criticism blank, examples of which may be found in a number of speech texts. This also enables an instructor to put down more deliberate criticism that he would not want to give before the whole class.

To those who are used to conventional classroom procedures such a course may not be very alluring. On the other hand, there are durable satisfactions in teaching adults on a non-credit basis. One is the matter of motivation. Here the motivation is not grades, or apple-polishing the instructor, but self-improvement. They are critical of the teacher and say so because they know that no penalty in the way of a low grade is involved. This is a healthy situation because both teacher and students are co-operating in a common enterprise. Adults are *very* appreciative if they feel that you are treating them fairly, serving them faithfully, believe in them, and are personally interested in them. They will go "all out" for a teacher and a course that they believe is doing them some good. They become very enthusiastic, earnest, co-operative, and sincere. In fact, these are the earmarks of an adult group which is characterized by a singleness of purpose despite surface disparities.

To those teachers who sometimes get a little "fed up" with juvenile haggling

over grades, with reading term papers and quizzes, and with the apathy of some college students, it will prove to be a new and invigorating experience to teach adults on a non-credit basis. Every college teacher should have some such experience. It will take him out of the ivory tower and force him to put his theory and principles into down-to-earth, brass-tacks language and examples. It will improve our college teaching immensely.

In the course outline below, I have arranged it week by week, assignment by assignment.

OUTLINE OR SYLLABUS FOR A COURSE IN *EFFECTIVE SPEAKING*
With Special Emphasis Upon Business or Professional Speech

First Meeting:
Introductory talk by instructor
> Definition of Speech—what speech is
> "Conversational" quality or mode in speaking
>> Conversation, discussion or conference, Public Speaking
> The four areas of communication
>> Transmission: writing, speaking
>> Reception: listening, reading
> Stage fright or tension
>> Causes and suggested remedies
Informal extemporaneous talks by class members on suggested topics
Theory: the importance of a central theme or main idea in a speech in preparation for the second meeting

Second meeting:
Every speech needs a central theme or idea which can be expressed in a single sentence:
> One-point talk—suggested topics
Theoretical material:
> Relaxation
> The four phases of speech
> The three aspects of action

The four attributes of voice
The four skills of speech
Choice of topics and sources of material
In preparation for the third meeting: the speech of exposition, the use of visual aids

Third meeting:
Speech of exposition or explanation: object—to make clear (visual aids optional). This speech may be a process exposition (making something or doing something, how a thing works, or analysis of a social organization)
Theoretical material:
> Use of visual aids as exemplified in the talks using them

Fourth meeting:
Speech of instruction or explanation
Suggestions:
>> A department head gives instructions or orders
>> A department head explains duties to a new employee
>> A new process or method of work is explained to workmen
>> A personnel manager or public relations officer explains how to be more efficient, save time, and effort, and cultivate better human relations
Theoretical material:
> Memorization (holding a speech in memory)
> Nature of the oral report

Fifth meeting:
Oral report to a department head— a meeting attended, research undertaken, sales for year, progress made, etc. (Make use of the persuasive)
Theoretical material:
> The nature of the audience
> The nature of persuasion
> Interviewing—requirements of the informative interview

Sixth meeting:

Informative interviews (work in pairs)

Example (one of several): an executive gives information about the company to a new employee

Theory:

Concreteness: beginning and ending speech

Interviewing—requirements of the presuasive interview

Seventh meeting

The persuasive interview (work in pairs)

Example: a sales manager calls his salesmen together and exhorts them to do better, suggests ways and means, "pats them on the back," etc. This can be a sales talk

Theory:

Motivation

The speech of goodwill or indirect promotion

Eighth meeting:

Speech of goodwill or indirect promotion

Object: to cultivate goodwill for an organization without directly mentioning the product the company sells

Theory:

The Flesch and Gunning formulas

The speech of policy or advocacy

Ninth meeting:

Speech of policy or advocacy

Why your solution should be adopted

Theory:

Basis for argument, and types

Dewey's five steps

The pep or morale talk

Tenth meeting:

Pep or morale talk (Example: in which you are urging a group that their work is important)

Theory: The general ends of speech, Methods of support

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"ALL IN FAVOR—STAND UP!"

John J. Pruis

THIS command has been spoken many, many times and in a wide variety of situations. The writer recalls a time when it was spoken by a kindergartener who was acting as chairman of his class for a meeting. The problem under discussion centered around a balance of one dollar and thirty-seven cents in the class treasury. It was near the end of the school year, and the group had to decide what was to be done with this money. Suggestions ranged from donating it to CARE, the world relief organization, to carrying it over into the first grade treasury next year. For the record, the latter proposal received a majority of the votes, to the delight of the kindergarteners, but to the dismay of the teacher. Nevertheless, the motion carried, and the action was binding. It remains unique among the examples of parliamentary practice this writer has observed.

The teaching of parliamentary practice in the elementary school is sound, pedagogically, in two major respects. First of all, it satisfies the familiar "preparation for life" test. Expositions of this idea are not difficult to find in the literature. As a matter of fact, this seems to be the most popular reason, by far, for teaching parliamentary practice to elementary school children. We are told that many adults do not know how to conduct meetings, or even that these same adults will often remain silent in meetings simply because they do not know how to participate in a more-or-less formal parliamentary session. There-

fore, it is concluded, we should begin down in the elementary school to prepare the future generations to become qualified parliamentarians.

It must be agreed that there are far too many adults whose participation in various community organizations is limited by fear of the ogre of parliamentary procedure. The most casual observance of the business meeting of almost any organized group will bear this out. But this writer contends that training for adulthood represents, at best, a rather weak justification for the inclusion of training in parliamentary practice in the elementary school. The high school can undoubtedly function more satisfactorily in this instance. There are many more clubs at this level to furnish practice in conducting and participating in meetings, and the pupils involved are much older, hence closer to the time when they may face the same problem.

Far more important, and also, it would seem, far more obvious, is the simple fact that every elementary school classroom can use certain elements of the parliamentary code in the daily course of classroom living. This, then, is the second and the stronger justification for teaching parliamentary procedure in the grades. Now, obviously, it is not intended that the elementary school classroom should become the training ground for budding senators or parliamentary strategists. Something far simpler and certainly more sane is desired. Of the several possibilities, three uses of parliamentary practice are offered as being significant and ade-

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quate reasons for its inclusion in the curriculum.

First, parliamentary law can be used to govern the various class and club meetings which are a part of school life. But, some will say, the primary grades may not have class meetings. True enough. It is hoped, however, that some of the little folks in the early grades will be invited to meetings of the Student Council, Junior Red Cross Council, Safety Council, and other similar organizations in the school, which are conducted by their older brothers and sisters. These meetings usually operate under a parliamentary code and the "visitors" will be expected to observe the same rules as those followed by the regular members. But there are still better reasons for such a program, even in the early grades.

The second use for this training in the elementary school is the fact that the principles of parliamentary practice can assist the teacher in administering certain elements of classroom procedure. There is always a host of regular duties to be performed, such as straightening the furniture and other items of equipment at the end of the day, collecting milk money, cleaning the erasers, watering the plants, etc., almost *ad infinitum*. One of the indispensable features of the parliamentary code is its committee structure. Many of the duties referred to here can be handled very nicely through the use of committees; and the committees, in turn, grow quite naturally out of the simplest of parliamentary organizations. It should be pointed out that in addition to providing desirable work experiences for the children, this plan also relieves the teacher of some of the routine and mechanical tasks which would otherwise be hers.

Finally, the institution of parliamentary procedure, however elementary, in a classroom serves to simplify and improve some of the little problems which are usually grouped under the title of "discipline." The establishment of lines of authority, the recognition of the rights as well as the responsibilities of the members of any group, and the training in orderly procedure all contribute to a kind of educational *esprit de corps* which eliminates a number of so-called problems at the source.

Of course, there is nothing magical about a system of laws or a procedure. Merely announcing that a particular classroom will henceforth be governed by the rules of parliamentary law will not produce satisfactory results. Such an action must be introduced carefully, slowly, and simply. Nevertheless, even though the system will be simplified, *parliamentary practice must be taught soundly. (Its) basic principles must be those which underlie our regular parliamentary code.* More specifically, the following principles must be recognized as the foundation or the framework for the parliamentary system:

1. Only one main subject may be discussed at a time.
2. Every subject brought to the attention of the group is entitled to full and free discussion.
3. The majority will rule, but the minority must be allowed to participate. In return for this privilege, the minority shall abide by the decision of the majority.
4. Every member has equal rights. Each may introduce matters, debate them, and vote on them.
5. Courtesy shall prevail. All members shall respect the rights of the individuals present as well as the group itself.

If these principles are used as the basis for controlling the actions of the group, explicitly or implicitly, the class will (a) come to understand the ra-

tionale or underlying reasons for such a code, and (b) come to use it regularly, easily, and naturally. These principles can be understood by all without great difficulty. More than that, since they are the essence of democratic participation, the school should count it one of its duties to teach these principles to all of its students.

The alert teacher will recognize immediately that the kind of training in parliamentary practice which is described herein should be taught through some basic framework, or through some regular classroom activity. It would not do at all to set aside a certain period each week for "parliamentary law class." The system must be taught directly, not incidentally; but it probably will be learned best if introduced through a book club, the class meeting, or some other such organization within the classroom. In the grades where there are adequate reasons for forming a class organization and holding weekly or biweekly class meetings, the teacher will find that this is the most realistic situation available. Children learn the fundamental procedures very readily in such a case. But the primary grades very likely will not wish to hold frequent class meetings. They can, however, utilize their "planning time" periods, "clean up" periods, or even the "share and tell" periods for such practice. A chairman may be elected or appointed and he may well help to guide the group in its discussion and/or business at hand. At any rate, learning how to participate in a group meeting, whether as chairman or member, is accomplished most easily when it becomes a part of some regular school activity.

It was stated earlier that the elements of parliamentary practice which are to be taught in the elementary school must be highly simplified. *Robert's Rules of Order* has no place in the elementary school. Undoubtedly the best guide to be followed can be found in the basic principles underlying the parliamentary code as listed above. In actual practice, however, the writer has found that there is one additional principle or understanding which should precede all other work. That is this: the group must be aware of the relationships between the chair and the members. The progress of any meeting and its chances of accomplishing anything depends upon the acceptance by both the chair and the members of their respective roles. Once this is understood, the group can move directly into the consideration of a problem, and the five basic principles can be taught and learned in the course of such a discussion. Considering only one major problem at a time, giving everyone an opportunity to discuss the problem, accepting the decision of the majority without punishing or mocking the minority, respecting the rights of each individual member, and acting courteously at all times are not only the fundamental principles in the conduct of any meeting, but they are also important items in what we might call an "acceptable behavior pattern." The school should teach them.

Perhaps one word of caution is in order. Just as the rules of parliamentary law are misused at times by both major and minor political opportunists, it is possible that parliamentary procedure in an elementary school classroom might be misused. The real values of the experience may be lost, or the progress of the group may be delayed or disrupted if the teacher does not supervise this activity carefully. The parliamentary code should facilitate the transaction of business, and it should promote a feeling of cooperation within the group. It is the task of the teacher to see to it that these constructive results are achieved.

WHEN YOU SEEK ADVICE

Alan W. Huckleberry

IT has often been said, "When you seek advice, be sure to ask someone who knows more about the subject than you do." Let us turn for the moment to some of the outstanding speech persons in our country to help us organize the public speaking course. If things of importance are to come first, then certainly we should have the opinions of "experts" as to which items in our course of study are of most importance.

Several years ago the following questionnaire was sent to the proverbial "experts," some of whom were teaching in colleges, while others were working with speech activities in high schools.

Below are listed 15 speech items with descriptions. The first one has been arbitrarily assigned the weight of 3 points. As you study the other items, think of them in terms of item number one. Then give each a weight of no less than 1 and no more than 5. A rating of 1 or 2 would indicate less importance, 3 would be the same, and 4 or 5 would mean that you thought it to be more important than item number one. It might help to think in terms of mediums or averages rather than extremes. We know that *any* item, if severely impaired, can become the most important one of all.

Item	Description	Weight
1. *Articulation*		3

Good: Distinct; Understandable
Poor: Full of consistent errors; Hard to understand.

2. *Pronunciation* ......
Good: Few regional errors
Poor: Many inconsistent sound substitutions, reversals, and omissions such as "tin cints" for ten cents, "apern" for apron, "libary" for library, and "feesh" for fish.

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3. *Voice Quality* ......
Good: Nothing detracts
Poor: May be nasal, metallic, harsh, breathy, muffled, etc.

4. *Voice Pitch* ......
Good: Nothing detracts
Poor: Too high or too low

5. *Inflection* ......
Good: Variety in pitch, stress, and loudness
Poor: Monotone, pattern, or Pedantic

6. *Rate* ......
Good: Varied to fit the idea
Poor: Too fast or too slow

7. *Rythm* ......
Good: Smooth, Uses pauses effectively
Poor: Jerky; Many "uhs"

8. *Conviction* ......
Good: Stimulating; Sincere
Poor: Insincere; Farcical

9. *Organization of Material* ......
Good: Follows purposeful outline of ideas
Poor: Rambles; Material out of place

10. *Choice of Material* ......
Good: Interesting; Appropriate; Balanced
Poor: Too much of one type; Relies on own opinion too much; Materials poorly chosen to fit the ideas

11. *Loudness* ......
Good: Fits the room, topic, person, and audience.
Poor: Too loud or too soft

12. *Bodily Activity* ......
Good: Movements enforce the voice speech
Poor: Lifeless or too energetic

13. *Posture* ......
Good: Informal; Nothing detracts
Poor: Slouched or stiff when sitting or standing

14. *Poise* ......
Good: In control of self; Conflicts do not upset.
Poor: Nervous; Embarrassed

15. *Audience Contact* ......
　　Good: Keeps eye and thought con-
　　　　tact with listeners.
　　Poor: Looks over heads, out of
　　　　window, at the ceiling, and
　　　　at the floor.

The results of the ratings of the "ex-
perts" are shown in Table I. An aver-
age was taken of the ratings for each
item. The Rank was then derived from
this Mean.

TABLE I
RATINGS OF SPEECH ITEMS BY "EXPERTS"

	Speech Item	Mean	Rank
1.	Articulation	3.00	9
2.	Pronunciation	3.12	7
3.	Voice Quality	2.82	11
4.	Voice Pitch	2.65	12.5
5.	Inflection	3.06	8
6.	Rate	2.53	15
7.	Rhythm	2.65	12.5
8.	Conviction	4.35	1
9.	Organization of Material	4.18	2
10.	Choice of Material	3.76	4
11.	Loudness	3.18	6
12.	Bodily Activity	2.88	10
13.	Posture	2.59	14
14.	Poise	3.71	5
15.	Audience Contact	4.12	3

The fact that the "experts" came to
the above statistical conclusions leads
to no monumental and stirring conclu-
sions. Still, it might be noted which
items are in the top 5 and those in the
bottom 5. Perhaps we are "overteach-

ing" posture and rate of speaking while
overlooking conviction and organization
of material. The rankings could help
us to consider "first things first."

Over a period of the last five years,
six freshmen college classes in public
speaking have been asked to compare
their ratings of speech items with those
of the "experts." These college freshmen
gave their opinions during the first
week of the term and before the activ-
ities of the course had been started or
discussed. The ratings of the six classes
are listed in Table II along with the
ranking by the "experts."

A glance through Table II will illus-
trate the idea that young people agree
with the "experts." To confirm the
rather obvious, the ranks provided by
the college students were compared to
the ranks of the "experts" by means of
a rank difference method of correlation
known as Spearman's Rho.[1] This meth-

[1] $Rho = 1 - \dfrac{6\Sigma D^2}{(N+1) N (N-1)}$. To work the
formula, have your class make its ratings and
ranks. Then set the ranks beside those of the
"experts." Find the difference (D) between the
ranks of your class and experts for each item.
Then square each difference (D²) and add this
column (ΣD^2). Multiply this by 6 and divide
by 3360, which is (N+1) N (N−1). N is the
15 items. Then take the quotient from 1.
Another formula for Rho is $1 - \dfrac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)}$.

TABLE II
COMPARITIVE RATINGS OF SPEECH ITEMS BY "EXPERTS" AND
COLLEGE FRESHMEN

	Speech Item	Rank By "Experts"	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Class V	Class VI
1.	Articulation	9	7.5	7	8	8.5	11	6
2.	Pronunciation	7	4	11	6	11	8	4
3.	Voice Quality	11	13	8	11	6	13.5	10.5
4.	Voice Pitch	12.5	15	10	14	15	15	14
5.	Inflection	8	9.5	6	7	7	4	5
6.	Rate	15	14	12	9.5	8.5	6	12
7.	Rhythm	12.5	11	14.5	13	14	12	8.5
8.	Conviction	1	5	2	2	2	3	5
9.	Organization of Material	2	2	1	1	4	1	1
10.	Choice of Material	4	1	4	5	5	7	10.5
11.	Loudness	6	9.5	13	9.5	10	10	13
12.	Bodily Activity	10	7.5	14.5	12	12.5	9	15
13.	Posture	14	12	9	15	12.5	13.5	7
14.	Poise	5	6	5	3	3	5	2
15.	Audience Contact	3	3	3	4	1	2	3

TABLE III
RHO CORRELATIONS OF RATINGS OF SPEECH CLASSES WITH RATINGS OF SPEECH "EXPERTS"

	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Class V	Class VI
Rho	.86	.72	.89	.77	.74	.59

od uses a formula that can be worked with simple arithmetic by your class to see how it compares with "experts." According to statistical tables, a correlation of .64 or higher is necessary before there is a significant relationship between the two sets of ratings. This .64 is the 1% level of significance. Table III gives the Rho correlation figures, showing the closeness of the ratings of the college freshmen and the "experts."

It is to be noted in Table III that all classes, with the exception of Class VI, were far over the .64 level needed to show close relationship with the ratings of the "experts." It might be of interest that college speech majors in senior methods classes consistently score .90 or better when their ranks are compared with the ranks of "experts."

Certain conclusions could be drawn from the data presented in these three tables.

1. Perhaps your own class is just as capable as the "experts" to help decide what speech items should be given more attention.

2. Special consideration should be given by all speech teachers to developing methods for increasing the student's Conviction, Organization of Material, Audience Contact, Choice of Material, and Poise as defined in this article. Perhaps less attention should be given to Rate, Posture, Rhythm, Voice Pitch, and Voice Quality in a class in public speaking.

When you seek advice, turn to your class. It is likely that you have "experts" all around you. It is not claimed here that your students are qualified to offer diagnosis and methods of speech improvement. Perhaps they are, but this yet needs to be illustrated. Nevertheless, they are always present to aid in organizing your classes in public speaking. There is always a good chance that they will agree with the "experts."

MORE EFFECTIVE ILLUSTRATIONS OF SPEECH TECHNIQUES

E. James Lennon

DO your students understand and consciously use speech techniques as practical, dynamic elements of effective speaking? Or do the techniques sometimes remain vague abstractions that fail to reach the level of effective use?

One way to encourage the conscious mastery and intelligent application of speech techniques is to clarify their practical functions with examples from familiar literature. Two important things may be accomplished when you illustrate a speech technique with an example drawn from a literary work familiar to the student: (1) the familiarity and meaningfulness of the example will facilitate comprehension, retention, and practical application of the technique; and (2) your use of materials from another course to exemplify speech techniques reveals relationships between speech and other courses, and helps to integrate speech in the total school curriculum.

Abstract principles, such as those involving audience adaptation or the psychological appeals, become intelligible to the student when their practical uses are explained to him in terms of effective, meaningful examples. The most effective examples are to be found among things well known to the student. Aristotle indicated that it is only the familiar thing that serves as the example; the unfamiliar thing is qualified to serve only as the thing exemplified.

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Literature is a rich source of examples that illustrate speech techniques in terms of interesting characters and situations familiar to the student. Each story, novel, essay, or play recently read by the student will yield examples that are meaningful to him and capable of facilitating the clear understanding of the techniques exemplified that is essential to intelligent application.

You can determine the literary works best known to your students by questioning the students themselves or by conference with English teachers whose courses the students have taken recently or are studying currently.

The next step is to examine these works for useful examples. Speech techniques frequently illustrated in literature include: principles of effective conversation, factors of interestingness, emotional appeals, appeals to reason, ethical appeals, and other techniques for successful audience adaptation. Some of the techniques are illustrated in the relationship of one character to another. Others are exemplified in the relationship of the author of the work to his contemporary readers.

II

The principles of effective conversation are most frequently found in character-to-character relationships. For students familiar with Shakespeare's *Hamlet* examples might be drawn from the conversations of Laertes and Polonius with Ophelia in Act I, Scene 3. Laertes, who is considerate, sympathetic, and

tactful, might be contrasted with Polonius, who is overbearing, assertive, and scoffing.

Illustrations of the factors of interestingness are easily found in author-to-reader relationships. The author's methods of holding his reader's attention exemplify methods the speaker may use to make his speech compelling and interesting to his audience. Such factors of interestingness as *the concrete, suspense, conflict, the familiar, the novel, humor, the vital,* and *movement* might be illustrated as follows:

The Concrete. The vivid sense impressions recorded by Washington Irving in "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," illustrate effective concreteness achieved through the use of imagery. Irving held his reader's interest during the early paragraphs of the story by evoking both visual and auditory imagined sensations, as in his description of the snug little valley:

> A small brook glides through it, with just murmur enough to lull one to repose; and the occasional whistle of a quail, or tapping of a woodpecker, is almost the only sound that ever breaks in upon the uniform tranquility.

Suspense. Herman Melville held and intensified reader interest in the opening pages of his story, "Benito Cereno," by developing *suspense.* The reader wants to know the identity of the strange ship that is approaching. The nearer it approaches the more intense his curiosity becomes.

Conflict. Daniel Defoe, in his *Robinson Crusoe,* used *conflict* to arouse the reader's initial interest. Robinson's father strongly opposes his desire to go to sea. There is also internal *conflict* between the boy's desire to please his father, who wants him to stay home, study law, and be content with "the middle state" in life, and his desire to seek adventure, eminence, and fortune.

The Familiar. The reader's interest in Thomas Wolfe's story, "Circus at Dawn," is heightened by *the familiar* as the author refers to "the Ringling Brothers, Robinson's, and Barnum and Bailey shows."

The Novel. Hawthorne's story, "Ethan Brand," opens with *the novel* as a compelling factor of interestingness as Bartram, a begrimed lime burner, tends his kiln on an eerie hillside at night-fall, while nearby his little son incongruously plays at house-building, using marble fragments as building blocks.

Humor. Mark Twain awakens reader interest in *Tom Sawyer* by use of *humor* in his portrayal of Tom's aunt as she searches for him:

> The old lady pulled her spectacles down and looked over them about the room; then she put them up and looked under them. She seldom or never looked through them . . . they were . . . built for "style," not service—she could have seen through a pair of stove-lids just as well.

The Vital. In Thomas Paine's discussion of "The Times That Try Men's Souls" in *The Crisis* during the Revolutionary War, the dominant factor of interestingness was *the vital.* The welfare and security of the reader was the central topic as Paine described obstacles faced by the American forces and the prospects of victory.

Movement. In the introductory chapter of his *Tale of Two Cities,* Dickens shifted rapidly from one factor of interestingness to another to develop lively interest in the England and France of 1775. The energy and variety of *movement* involved humor and conflict in the antagonistic ideas of the opening paragraph, the familiar in the references to contemporary events, and the concrete in the detailed, specific examples.

Illustrations that clarify the function of emotional appeals, appeals to reason,

and the speaker's personal or ethical appeals can be found in literature. The speech teacher whose students are familiar with Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* might explain the three appeals with examples from one scene, Scene 2 of Act I, in which Cassius seeks to persuade Brutus to join the conspirators against Caesar. Emotional appeal may be exemplified in the feelings of patriotism, duty, and pride that Cassius evokes in Brutus. He describes the danger of despotism if Caesar is crowned, reminds Brutus of his ancestor's brave service to Rome against tyranny, and points out Brutus' nobility, worth, and goodness. Cassius' logical appeal includes the analogy of the mirror to show Brutus that he needs the help of others to realize his own proper relationship to the political situation. His ethical or personal appeal includes his reporting of first-hand knowledge, which suggests that he is qualified to appraise the situation, and his statements that he is impelled by honor and loyalty.

III

In using examples from literature familiar to the student to facilitate the learning of speech techniques the speech teacher takes advantage of five factors:

1. Examples clarifying the practical functions of speech techniques are contained in literary works known to the student.

2. Such examples tend to be interesting and meaningful to the student because they are usually in terms of dramatic characters and compelling situations.

3. The retention value of such examples is explained both by the fact that they are integrally related to the student's prior knowledge and reading experience, and by the trenchant imagery and concreteness that they introduce into the learning process.

4. They tend to save classroom time because the student's prior knowledge of the characters and situations makes it unnecessary for the teacher to supply as much of the background as might otherwise be necessary.

5. Their use promotes integrative learning and helps to integrate speech in the total curriculum.

WHITHER THE SPEECH ACTIVITIES PROGRAM?

Gifford Blyton

FOR several years considerable criticism has been directed toward the program of extra-curricular speech activities in our schools and colleges. We have heard that speech is a frill; that people talk too much as it is; that speech training produces too many exhibitionists. Whether or not the critics are just is not for conjecture here. The purpose of this article is to examine some weakening tendencies in our speech activities program and to suggest a guiding principle for future action.

I. Our system of speech activities lacks a philosophical basis. Speech programs have over-indulged in busy work and have remained indifferent in regard to agitation for improvements. If there ever was a day when indifference and busy work were pardonable, that time is past. Democracy and Communism are locked in a death struggle on a world battleground. Therefore, we in the field of speech (and in all other areas as well) must espouse the cause of democracy with the zeal of crusaders. Communist youth is not left to uncertainty and aimlessness. Neither should Americans be left spiritually weaponless.

The speech activities program has an unexcelled potential for promoting the democratic ideal. Debate and discussion in their emphasis upon critical thinking; extempore speaking and oratory in their search for meaning and definition of democracy; the interpretative speech arts in their illumination of the culture out of which the democratic faith

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emerged (and is constantly emerging); what better instruments than these are there for teaching and promoting the democratic way of life?

II. Most of our time has been spent with the superior students. The "average" speaker has been forgotten. Our rule has been "if you are good enough for contests, you are good enough for our speech program."

Instead of concentrating our time and effort grooming champions, we need to develop a speech activities program to widen the area of student participation. Opportunities must be created to enable each student to take an active part on the level of his ability to participate. This need can be met by organizing the program on a two-fold basis: (1) A so-called varsity group consisting of those who will represent the school in interscholastic or intercollegiate associations; and (2) an intramural group made up of all other students. The awarding of varsity and intramural trophies, the granting academic credit for participations, and, on a wide scale, the holding of contests before audiences are only some of the ways to reach more students. Varsity and intramural squads make it possible to have every student take an active part in at least one speech activity. Perhaps some schools and colleges have successfully instituted such a plan, but the number is far too limited to satisfy the over-all need.

III. Our efforts have centered around the winning of tournaments. Many schools have become obsessed with the idea that winning is the highest, in fact, the only good. Coaches and students

work hard to prepare debates, discussions, orations, and plays, hoping their labors will be good enough to win. Such zestfulness may lead to an abuse of human relationships as it did with a coach, who having led teams to victory in a college tourney, said in a haughty, condescending manner, "Oh well, it gave us a good chance to practice."

Of course, winning is important; everyone enjoys victory, but we should not degenerate to the point where it is the *first* consideration. Our actions should be guided by, "Is this exercise training in democracy?" not "Have we done all possible to assure victory?" The student who seeks honest, workable answers to such questions as national conscription, price controls, and how to improve our ethical and moral conduct faces greater challenges than does the student who merely goes to school. The speech activities student must do more than find answers for examination papers. He must be able to show what the answers mean in terms of history in the making, and he must present his conclusions orally for all to hear and evaluate.

Before one can answer the question of whether or not a plan of national conscription should be adopted, he must delve into the inner workings of present-day democracy and compare the findings with the ideal. Failure to study these workings, and to contemplate the ideal, will result in a superficial statement signifying nothing. In a comparable vein, the contest orator in exercising his right to criticize freely the social order should come to appreciate this exclusive privilege of democracy—free speech.

Material for contests can be chosen to illuminate our cultural development. Let us prepare students for interpretative contests, but the ultimate goal is to gain added insight into our back-grounds, not merely to say a few lines for a judge and then be heard no more.

IV. We have placed a premium upon sophistry. This is especially true in debating where tricks have paid off. Too many tournament winners resort to circumlocutions and a clear distortion of the truth in a bold scheme to win a case. One highly rated negative team challenged the affirmitive to choose which of the thirteen theories they were advocating and to clarify their stand on the theory selected. When asked by the critic, "Why did you choose the number thirteen instead of fifty, or one hundred?" the answer, "It was the first number to come to mind," clearly illustrates a pervasive attitude of our modern sophists.

Most debate coaches and judges are familiar with cases of manufactured evidence. Some think them all right "if you can get away with it." This same feeling is often reflected in other speech activities. Apparently the evil is in getting caught.

Tricks and sophistry do bring rewards sometimes. Judges must declare winners. In such cases they select the lesser of the two evils—they try to determine which side cheated the least. Much of the blame can be traced to the coaches themselves. The writer is acquainted with several coaches who say, "I'm tired of building character and losing contests."

Speech activities must emphasize the meaning of responsible speech. In a democracy people share their thinking openly. Since speech is our most widely used instrument of shared thought, we must learn to use language wisely and to assume the responsibility for what we say. Name calling, unsupported statements, and misuse of evidence violate democratic principles because they are devices to conceal the truth. If we

continue to condone tricks and sophistry we may as well bow to our critics and admit we are living on borrowed time.

V. The importance of the mechanics of effective speaking has been exaggerated. Too often we call a person a good speaker when he has good voice and articulation habits. But good speaking is much more than mechanical skill. A person needs to speak well mechanically, but also, and more important, he must say something worthy of the listener's time. Many students win extempore speaking contests mainly because they "sound good." The glib speaker often emerges victorious because in his mastery of the mechanics he has learned vocal subtilties which tend to camouflage his deception and ignorance. Where are the judges while all this is going on? Judges are people and they can be fooled in speech contests in the same way most of us are mislead during political campaigns. However, the coach, because of his longer and closer relationship with the contestant, should

not be deceived by his student's glibness and should demand sincerity and substance.

VI. There has been a widespread confusion of means and ends. Frequently one hears that speech training is designed to make better speakers. We must make a much more audacious claim—speech training is designed to make better men.

The shortcomings of the speech activities program are not inherent in the practice. We have lost our way simply because too many participants (especially coaches) have failed to re-examine constantly the job they are doing. Thus, our direction has lacked definition because our purpose has remained concealed. The hour for inventory is at hand. Our task is to re-evaluate our goals. Let us read, act, debate, discuss, and make speeches for pleasure, but let us not call it the end for which our toil is meant. And to those who insist they have followed the above plan, the answer is, "Take another look."

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS IN A COURSE IN ADVANCED PUBLIC SPEAKING

Henry C. Youngerman

THE term "audience analysis" has been applied to all that one may think about one's hearers. Generally textbook authors urge the student to consider such factors as age, sex, and economics; some authors include attitudes, interests, degrees of acceptance and opposition. "Audience analysis" is so diffused as an element pervading all of Rhetoric as to be meaningless; or, it becomes a method for statistical generalities such as: there are present today ten gentlemen, ten ladies, and one public speaker.

Another ambiguous term is "advanced public speaking." As a course title there is perhaps none other quite so vague in Speech catalogues. It may be the second semester of Public Speaking. It may be a course in Persuasion or Occasional Speeches; or designed for pre-Law students. Perhaps, it is two or three credits for the school debaters.

Six years of teaching the advanced offering as a terminal course in Public Address leads to certain conclusions. First, it must not be a laboratory only for polishing the delivery and voice of the "rough-diamond speaker." Second, audience analysis is a necessary and controlling discipline for the student in advanced speaking. Third, audience analysis is only a modern term for the classic *Invention*. Finally, a student's audience analysis can be judged by his teacher only after that student has experienced disciplined analysis of his immediate audience in the classroom.

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Utterback urged in 1925 that the speaker engaged in argumentation know his audience because choice of arguments depends largely upon conceptual systems of ideas. Therefore, he says, the one operation of Invention that discovers the arguments cannot be pursued without first analyzing the audience to discover the pattern of thinking characteristic for it.[1] Futhermore, "One of the chief faults of the uninstructed speaker is failure to construct his arguments with reference to the particular audience before him."[2]

Genung stressed that "In the inventive act, the material is not properly found . . . until it has been subjected . . . to the standard mainly of one's sense of fitness and proportion, but also conditioned largely . . . by the character of the audience or public, alloted time, circumstance of utterance."[3] It is important, therefore, "to form the habit of testing truth at first hand . . . instead of reading studiously what other men have said men were—you should go out yourself and see (if you can see) what they are."[4]

Audience analysis is not Public Opinion. One does not stand outside the group, measure it, and then apply to it a speech. One can best analyze an audience after completing analysis of one's self and then finding that self in the group or community. All too often,

[1] William E. Utterback, "Aristotle's Contribution to the Psychology of Argument," *QJS*, XI (1925), 218-225.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 224.
[3] *The Practical Elements of Rhetoric* (New York, 1890), p. 217.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 231

in the classroom situation the average student rates his classmates no higher than efficient sound-absorbent materials, just as does the average contest speaker. But the student must be made to realize that he is not to speak to *phantom* audiences: to what is known in our academic world as a "grade" or "mark"; to what perhaps the instructor suggests as the world off the campus; or to the kind of phantom audience the student dreams of meeting after graduation from the campus.

Phantom audiences force students to enter into extended and uncontrolled role-playing situations where all accept the rules of a game and willingly suspend disbelief. Here, we all are at the drop of a hat, or the ringing of class bells experts on subjects categorical, problematical, mathematical, and astronomical; on aeronautics, international affairs, dope addiction, and the Honor System. It is a system of disguised charades of the "Who Am I?" variety.

The real audience should supplant the phantom audience. When properly motivated and directed, efforts at audience analysis effectively promote rejection of the phantom audience. Such efforts direct attention to the immediate audience. Therefore, it makes the more obvious all who are role-taking in an organic sense, that of social interaction. Each student, as a member of the community in the classroom, accepts the role of responsible communicator of ideas and attitudes.

Certain methods for audience analysis are useful in combination to orient the student to improved adaptation, to successful invention in his own speeches. These methods, along with the textbook materials, constitute the advanced course as I have taught it. I began the course in 1946 with Artistotle's *Rhetoric* as the textbook. But it proved to be too much for the one semester course, because of need for too many lecture sessions. Brigance's *Speech Composition* was adopted instead. This is not to be construed as fleeing from Aristotle to Brigance! Again, because of need for additional lectures on methods of audience analysis, a specific text was dropped in favor of selected readings in Winans' *Speech Making*, Oliver and Cortright's *New Training for Effective Speech*, Brigance for the psychology of meeting opposition, and Hollingworth's *Psychology of the Audience*. As often as was possible, Aristotle was indicated as the father of much the students were reading.

The course now consists of the following. A series of speeches begins with a short talk of Conviction of the following assignment: "This subject (whatever was chosen by the student) is the best choice by a *student* for *student audiences*." Then follow four weeks of text readings and lectures. A second speech is made. It is one of Exposition, on a new subject, explaining its content in relation to the audience in the public speaking classroom. The third and fourth speeches involve Persuasion against either passive or active opposition. The subject of these speeches remains constant for the remainder of the term. A long persuasive speech is then made to the advanced class. It was then readapted for delivery to meet the interests of several beginning classes in public speaking. Following this, the speakers report on their experiences in audience analysis and adaptation. The term concludes with round table discussions of what methods and techniques have been found effective. Throughout, the audience in the classroom is considered the actual text for the course.

That text was constructed by means

of several approaches to audience analysis. The advanced students first visited several beginner classes early in the term to evaluate (in Genung's phrase, "if they can see") how each beginning speaker saw his audience in the classroom. The advanced students then analyzed their own class as representative of the campus as a community. They began by identifying three main ideas in a scrambled outline of a speech on Advertising practices. The assignment of rank to the main ideas by each student revealed how bias gives major place to either Personal Power, Ethical Values, or Financial Protection in the speaker's preparation of a speech prior to analysis of an audience. Then a socio-economic profile of the group was constructed. Items included, among others, were religion, Greek affiliation, family politics, family income, size of family, property, and travels. Complementary to these background items were major and minor subjects: year in school, age, and personal income. Next each student indicated his attitude-reactions to forty theme sentences taken from generally typical speeches made by students in the beginner classes.

The beginner classes were surveyed by means of the same socio-economic profiles and reactions to the forty speech themes. It is typical of all classes, whether in 1946 or 1953, that students are revealed as generally conservative, even reactionary, resentful of any indication of force, inclined simultaneously to believe in such maxims as pertain to "being lucky," "individuality of the rugged brand," and "join 'em if you can't fight 'em." Generally, students follow family very closely in politics, with but few independents. Most students come from small families. Very few are atheists or agnostics. Most are affiliated with campus church groups. Almost all have had considerable travel experience. Their choices of careers stress moneymaking. Very few *want* to become teachers. Not too infrequent is the student who lists family income as being over $20,000 and classifies the family as middle class.

Each student compares his personal socio-economic profile and attitude survey with those of the advanced class and that for each of the beginner classes. And for the listeners too in the knowledge that their surveys and profiles have determined the speaker's approach there is a heightened awareness of being integrated into a real audience.

It is true that students cannot expect to make socio-economic profiles or to collect attitude reactions when confronted by future audiences. There is rarely ever sufficient time. Nevertheless, the student has learned to analyze himself as a member of a community. One does not become a persuader of men, a leader of a community, until one has approached the limits of Invention where the speaker can see himself sitting as one with the audience listening to the speech.

Students find that necessary devices and techniques are learned developmentally. Discussion of speech subject matter is always in terms of real audiences—not in terms of phantom audiences presumably from "real life." Invention is learned by experience, as Genung advised, from people rather than from textbooks. Finally, each student learns that in the final analysis audiences judge chiefly on the basis of integrity and sincerity, and that clear speech organization is evidence of one's understanding of both speech subject and the audience.

SPEECH REQUIREMENTS FOR STATE CERTIFICATION OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF SUBJECTS OTHER THAN SPEECH

Mary Pettas and Esther Horowitz

THE investigation herein reported was motivated by the desire to learn the kind and amount of speech training given in the United States and its territories to elementary and secondary teachers in fields other than speech. In the past, speech teachers have expressed a curiosity about the existence of such information, which has not been readily available.

Explanation of Study. Our material was obtained from Armstrong and Stinnett[1] and from Woellner and Wood.[2] It should be noted that while it represents the most recent available information, this material, as the compilers themselves indicate, is subject to change from year to year.

Table I represents a summary of the areas and levels in which speech is required by the various states. The table also shows those states which have not indicated any speech requirements. This latter statement should not be interpreted to mean that those states do not necessarily have such requirements, but that our sources have not listed any.

Column I lists the levels and areas in which speech, *per se*, is required.

Miss Pettas (M.A., Columbia, 1942) is Assistant Professor of Speech at New York University. Miss Horowitz (M.A., Wisconsin, 1949) is Instructor in Speech at Hofstra College.

[1] W. E. Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett, "Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States," Federal Security Agency, Office of Education (Washington, 1951).

[2] R. C. Woellner and M. A. Wood, "Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators" (University of Chicago Press, 1951-1952).

Column II lists the levels and areas in which language arts and/or other communications subjects are required. In this column, we have included those subjects, which, while not mentioning speech specifically, have nevertheless given us the impression that some degree of oral communication work was involved. "Children's Literature and Story Telling" is an example of one such prescribed course.

Column III lists the speech requirements for English majors.

Column IV lists the speech requirements for other majors.

The educational levels are indicated by the following symbols: Kg.N (Kindergarten-Nursery); Kg.P. (Kindergarten-Primary); El. (Elementary School); J.H. (Junior High School); S.H. (Senior High School), and H.S. (High School.

SUMMARY

1. Of the 52 states and territories, 28 states have some type of *speech* requirement. 24 states do not indicate any speech requirement.

2. 17 states require speech as part of the general education background, regardless of major. 12 states require language arts, regardless of major. 11 states require speech as part of the English major. 2 states require speech as part of a language arts major. 8 states require speech as part of other majors.

3. 12 states require speech as part of the elementary school teacher's train-

TABLE SHOWING SPEECH REQUIREMENTS FOR STATE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS OF SUBJECTS OTHER THAN SPEECH

State or Territory	Speech Required	Lang. Arts and other Communication Subjects	Sp. Req. of Eng. Majors	Sp. Req. of Other Majors
Alabama				H.S. (Vocational Agriculture)
Arizona		El.		
Arkansas	El., J.H., H.S. rec.	H.S. Lang. Arts Major; Adult Ed.	H.S.	Mentally Retarded (sp. cor.) Tchr. of Adults (Admin.* position)
Colorado				
Connecticut				
Delaware				Mentally Retarded (sp. cor.) School psychologist
Washington, D.C.				
Florida	El. through H.S.			Exceptional children (Sp. ed.)
Georgia	All levels			H.S.
Idaho				
Illinois	Kg.P. 2-3 pts. (Tchr. and supervisors); H.S.	El.		
Indiana	El. 8 pts.	H.S. and Lang. Arts (4 pts. min.)	J.H., H.S.	
Iowa	El., 2 pts. sp. cor. min.	El.		
Kansas	H.S.	El.		Exceptional Ch. Sp. Cor.
Kentucky			H.S. 18 pts. maximum	
Louisiana	El. 3 pts. min.	Kg.N.	H.S. 6 pts.	
Maine				
Maryland				
Massachusetts				
Michigan		El.		Exceptional Ch. Sp. Cor.
Minnesota				
Mississippi	El. 3 pts.; H.S. 3 pts.	El.	H.S. 6 pts. recommended	
Missouri	El. sp. rec.	El.	J.H., H.S. 2-5 pts.	
Montana				
Nebraska				
Nevada				
New Hampshire		El.		

State or Territory	Speech Required	Lang. Arts and other Communication Subjects	Sp. Req. of Eng. Majors	Sp. Req. of Other Majors
New Jersey		El.		
New Mexico				
New York**				
North Carolina			J.H., H.S. 3 pts. rec.	
North Dakota				
Ohio				Distributive Ed.
Oklahoma			J.H., H.S.	
Oregon				
Pennsylvania	Kg.P. 3 pts.			
Rhode Island				
South Carolina				
South Dakota	El., Kg.P. 3 pts.		H.S.	
Tennessee	El. 2 pts. min.			
Texas				
Utah		El.		
Vermont				
Virginia	Kg.N. sp. rec.			
Washington	El.			
West Virginia	El., H.S.			
Wisconsin				
Wyoming				
Alaska				
Hawaii				
Puerto Rico				

* Special secondary vocational class trade and industrial and public service education.
** Excluding New York City and Buffalo.

ing; 8 states as part of the high school teacher's general training; 3 as part of the junior high school teacher's general training; 3 as part of the kindergarten primary teacher's training; 2 as part of the senior high school teacher's general training; 1 as part of the nursery-kindergarten teacher's training.

4. 1 state (Iowa) requires 2 points in Speech Correction, in addition to other speech work, as part of the elementary school teacher's training. 4 states require speech correction as part of the training for teachers of exceptional or mentally retarded children. It is interesting to note that speech correction is regarded as essential in this area.

5. 1 state (Delaware) requires speech as part of the school psychologist's training.

6. 1 state (Nevada) requires a hearing test of all educators, including teachers, administrators, etc.

7. The number of times a given

speech course is mentioned may be broken down as follows: radio—once; debate—once; oral interpretation—once; discussion—twice; public speaking—3 times; story-telling—3 times; drama—3 times; rhetoric[3]—3 times; speech correction—5 times. Some type of *speech* course was mentioned 17 times, with only the following descriptions: speech,

[3] There was no indication as to whether this was an oral or a written course.

oral expression, oral English, oral composition, and spoken English.

To the best of our knowledge, the facts reported above are accurate. However, as we mentioned before, state certification requirements undergo periodic changes. Therefore, we feel that this type of study should be repeated from time to time so that the profession may be kept aware of speech requirements for state certification.

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SPEECH IMPROVEMENT FOR THE
ELEMENTARY CHILD

Norma Lee Lucas

IN the modern school, education is a life-centered and purpose-centered activity in which oral communication has an important place. The speech teacher, therefore, has an obligation to help the child to communicate more effectively as he lives, works, plays, and grows in the classroom and out.

Many of our attempts at speech improvement have provided speaking situations for the child, but have failed to stress meaningful, active, effective oral communication. Three basic reasons account for this inadequacy: (1) as teachers of speech, we have not defined adequately the term "speech improvement," (2) we have not studied the developing child systematically in terms of his needs and interests, (3) we have not organized and directed our speech improvement programs in accordance with these needs and interests.

The term "speech improvement" is used indiscriminately in speech education. To anyone seeking a definition, the question "What is speech improvement?" seems to have many answers. Some teachers say that it is practice in speaking through stimulating activities and projects; others maintain that it is the development of isolated speech skills; many consider that it is the correction of minor speech defects; and a few identify it merely as "oral English." These various interpretations have clouded the purpose of speech improvement and created a need for more definitive understanding.

Mrs. Lucas (M.A., Missouri) is speech correctionist for the Clayton Public Schools, Clayton, Missouri.

SPEECH IMPROVEMENT DEFINED

To meet the need for definition, then, let us consider speech improvement as any progress made by the normal speaker in the direction of more effective oral communication. This view was emphasized recently by the statement: "Too often, the top and the bottom of the scale in speech receive the great emphasis. . . . Between the ten per cent who probably have speech defects and the possible ten per cent who are the actors, public speakers, and debaters lies a large group of children whose speech may be just adequate or, in many instances, may be below the maximum level that could be achieved."[1] Speech improvement must become experience in oral communication activities that are selected, planned, and directed in order that the "children whose speech may be just adequate" can reach their best level of achievement in effective speaking.

SYSTEMATIC CHILD STUDY

Child growth is an abstraction unless it is understood as a systematic process which produces developmental and behavior patterns that change as the child grows. If the speech program contributes to effective oral communication as the child moves from one maturity level to another, teachers responsible for speech improvement must appreciate and utilize these growth factors. We need to become actively aware that, as the child grows, "more goes on than meets the eye." Such awareness should

[1] Charlotte G. Wells, "Speech In The Full School Program," *Elementary English*, XXVIII (April, 1951), pp. 201-202.

bring us from pre-occupation with long lists of activities that presumably improve speech to a focus of attention on the sudden and hidden changes in the child.

ORGANIZATION OF A SPEECH IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

When we build a speech improvement program, our beacon light should be effective oral communication and the runway lights the child's developmental pattern. We must subscribe wholeheartedly to the idea that "curriculum and methods are too largely determined by a narrow psychology of learning instead of a liberal psychology of development."[2] We must know that experiences which provide a "speaking situation" are not enough unless they are directed to meet the child's own interests. We must compile careful grade-age profiles that will indicate the behavior and maturation of the typical child. These profiles will help us select, plan, and direct speech improvement programs that will "belong" to the child at his particular level. The following descriptions are not meant to be conclusive but are intended to suggest what we can expect from such profiles. We should know

that the typical first-grader likes to use big words, but also likes to listen; that most second-graders have a mechanical learning attitude, but tend to over-practice; that the average third-grader gives more attention to cause and effect relationships, but is sensitive to criticism; that many fourth-graders put a premium on efficiency, but are easily discouraged; and that the majority of fifth-graders are not as concerned with skill training as with skill application. Pre-adolescence and adolescence bring attendant problems of antagonisms and emotional instability of which the speech teacher should be aware.[3]

All children need the security provided by successful speech experiences that obtain favorable responses from others. In addition, they need the sense of adequacy that comes when self-evaluation tells them they have done their best. Thoughtful teachers direct speech improvement so that the child knows both security and adequacy as he achieves desirable responses from his hearers and as he meets his own standards—as he experiences effective oral communication.

[2] Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, *The Child From Five to Ten* (New York, 1946), p. 12.

[3] For discussions of these characteristics see Gladys Gardner Jenkins, Helen Shacter, and William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children* (Chicago, 1949); Gesell and Ilg, *The Child From Five to Ten*.

BOOK REVIEWS

Henry L. Mueller, *Editor*

SCHOOLS AND OUR DEMOCRATIC SO-
CIETY. By M. H. Willing, John Guy Fow-
lkes, Edward A. Krug, Russell T. Gregg,
and Clifford S. Liddle. New York: Harper
and Brothers, 1951; pp. vii+430. $3.50.

Five colleagues in the Department of
Education at the University of Wisconsin
have done commendable work in solidifying
and verbalizing much of the current loose
talking and vague thinking in education about
the social purposes of the nation's schools.

They call their book *Schools and Our
Democratic Society*, and the book covers the
subject aptly and well. On nearly every page
is the evident purpose of interpreting the
schools in terms of the society from which
they spring, and which they in turn help to
shape. The answers to the multitude of prob-
lems of curriculum, discipline, etc., they as-
sert, lie in the social goals of the school. The
social role of the school is dynamic, not
static, because it springs from the rapidly
changing tempo of society.

Teachers are prone to make the school's
work schoolwork, they say, but pupils, parents,
and the general public want the school's work
to be lifework: it is not so important how
well the school does its work, but how closely
it comes to the life needs of the youngsters
and the service needs of our major social
institutions. Schools must provide a real
community life in the school, a life where
inequalities do not determine recognition;
where color, race, or religion does not segregate;
where parental occupations do not limit op-
portunity, nor place of nativity establish or
deny acceptance.

This, it will readily be recognized, is a
clearcut statement of the current emphasis
on education for life adjustment.

Clinging to the American belief that public
education is a function of the states, but that
communities "control and determine the kind,
amount, and quality of educational experience"
offered in our public schools, the authors re-
commend that schools "point the way toward
the appraisal and improvement of our society
and its schools."

The book could well supplement the reading
lists of nearly any basic education course and
could be used profitably as a basic textbook
for an upper-grade-level course for the about-
to-be-accredited teacher. As a matter of fact,
there are few teachers, novitiate or veteran,
who could not profit from its reading. It
articulates much of what is implied but often
left unsaid in professional courses; it says
little which a modern teacher will dispute.
Even the veteran teacher will be stimulated
by its confirmation and clear verbalization of
his basic pedagogical philosophy. School board
members, school constitutents, and laymen
would find much to enjoy and approve and
much from which to profit in reading selected
chapters.

Chapters IV and V are particularly stimu-
lating reading for all Americans. They deal
with the understated subject, "What De-
mocracy Demands of the School." Actually,
they constitute one of the clearest, most
succinct statements of democracy that the re-
viewer has read, and it is to be regretted that
they are found in a book which will have
so restricted a reading clientele. The chapters
abound with rich, pithy, well-turned phrases,
worthy of being quoted as epigrams.

Democratic cooperation, the authors aver, is
not to be confused with pupil docility or
"leaving it up to the pupils." Some teaching
procedures may thwart the development of
cooperative individuals, they declare; they in-
dict the question-answer recitation; marks and
grades; individual study; teacher-administered
discipline; spectator athletics; adviser-run stu-
dent activities; student gangs; "managed-from-
the-top" plays, concerts, and demonstrations;
public demand for smooth performance by
musical, dramatic, athletic, and forensic groups
at the sacrifice of educational values. Had this
indictment, with which most teachers would
concur at least in part, been followed with more
specific recommendations for a remedy, this re-
viewer would have been better pleased. The
authors "define the pedagogical problem," as
most veteran teachers are already able to do,
and conclude, "Books and college lectures do
not appear to offer complete directions."

It is this posing of problems and occasional
failure to follow them with more than general
recommendations that constitutes one of the

very few weaknesses of the book. Even veteran teachers need the comfort of specific suggestions; for the novice they are indispensable. More important, how can the teacher effect acceptance by the public of recommendations like those just mentioned, which most school supporters would think revolutionary?

The final six chapters deal with specific items of day-to-day living within schools and with items of personal consequence to teachers: extra-class activities; teacher participation in the formulation and administration of school policy; plans for teacher welfare, including salaries, tenure, and retirement; a wholesome emphasis upon teaching as a profession; teachers' rights and responsibilities; and a good discussion of "teachers for tomorrow." Without entering the lists in the current controversy anent professional education versus subject-area preparation, the authors do take a stand favoring a broad and rich general educational background for the new teacher, with preferably five years of pre-teaching education and training; some experience for all teachers with applied and natural science and mathematics; wide sampling of social studies and fine arts; and, more important than anything else, English, literature and speech. They decry overconcentration during the first four or five years of preparation for teaching; they recommend that not too many professional courses be taken by undergraduates, one-fourth of the total hours for a degree being suggested. Many candidates for the master's degree specialize too heavily, they say; classroom teachers who take master's or doctor's degrees should take them jointly in education and a subject-matter field. "There is grave need for improvement in the curriculums in professional education now required for those who are preparing to teach and for experienced teachers."

This is a good book: sound, pointed, practical, evidently based on hard, continuous, mature thinking about what schools should be, yet free from the academic stratosphere, always aware of what the schools face in their earthly existence, aware of what they can really do. The authors do not claim to have contributed novel thinking to teacher education, but they do say some things that need to be said, and they say them mighty well.

R. P. Hibbs,
Superintendent of Schools,
DuQuoin, Illinois

GAMES AND JINGLES FOR SPEECH IMPROVEMENT. By Genevieve E. Raaf.

Milwaukee: The Author, 625 North 15th Street, 1952; pp. xviii+89. $2.50.

Miss Raaf states in the introduction of her book that its purpose is to arrange a systematic set of games and jingles in one book so that the user will not have to consult many text-and workbooks in order to have an efficient speech retraining program.

Drawing from the field of personal experience, the author has produced a book that can be used by the therapist, the classroom teacher, the parent, and the student, since it presents information about speech defects which can be easily understood and material which will be helpful in the speech improvement program.

The book is divided into four main chapters: "Games and Jingles for Improvement of Articulatory Faults," "Games and Jingle for Aiding the Stutterer," "Games and Jingles to Improve Cleft-Palate Speech," and "Games and Jingles for Improving the Speech of the Cerebral-Palsied." These chapters are arranged so that reference to them is quick and easy.

In the introduction for each chapter, Miss Raaf gives an orderly plan which describes the speech faults involved, and, step by step, the course of treatment usually prescribed. There is also a "Phonetic Key" which explains the phonetic symbols used in the book.

There is excellent material for the young child and for the high school student or the adult, but there is very little that could be used for the child in the intermediate grades.

However, this book should prove highly valuable to the speech therapist who is working in a situation which requires the cooperation of the parents and the classroom teachers because of the many games which can be used in the classroom and the home.

Because of the logical and practical arrangement of the various games and jingles, this book should be a welcome addition to the present material in the field of speech improvement.

Doris R. Cleary,
Coordinator of Speech Services
in the Elementary Schools,
Great Neck, New York

FUN-TIME PUPPETS. By Carrie Rasmussen and Caroline Storck. Chicago: Childrens Press, Inc., 1952; pp. 41. $1.25.

In *Fun-Time Puppets* Misses Rasmussen and Storck seek to awaken the child's creativity, suggesting ways and means of using things at hand. Bottle tops, sponges, empty cans and

bottles—articles to be found in every home, usually thrown on the trash heap—may be salvaged and used for making hand puppets.

This book is addressed to the child, rather than to the teacher. Easily read and understood directions, supplemented by colorful illustrations, guide the child in constructing not only hand puppets, but a theatre in which they may act as well. The directions strike a happy medium between the extremes of being too vague and general and too detailed. The child receives enough instruction to fire his enthusiasm and ingenuity, but not such explicit specifications that he experiences frustration because certain materials are unavailable, or because some elaborate construction is beyond his skill. There is probably no better book on hand puppets for the child, whether he is in or out of school, alone or a member of a group.

Before this book was reviewed for *The Speech Teacher* it was put to practical use in several classrooms. The children in the third and fourth grades delighted in it. An art teacher called it a "must" for her department. An eighth grade English class made a miniature stage, wrote an original play, and produced it with hand puppets—all stimulated by a single copy of *Fun-Time Puppets*. How these activities correlated with various speech skills is of course obvious.

The book perhaps would be of greatest value in the small school whose limited physical facilities prohibit a full-scale dramatics program. But regardless of the limitations of school plant, or the simplicity or complexity of the school program, every elementary school (and every elementary school child) will find in *Fun-Time Puppets* stimulation for creative activity in several closely related fields.

HELEN B. MUELLER,
Franklin School,
Cape Girardeau, Missouri

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. By Kate V. Wofford, Robert Edward Baker, Alfred Holman, Genevieve Bowen, and Eleanor Green. Chicago: The National Council of Teachers of English, 1952; pp. 117. $1.00.

The title of this pamphlet is misleading, for it deals not with discussion, but with group dynamics, as is made explicit on the first page of the introduction. (This page also contains the first impropriety that I have ever encountered in a publication of The National Council of Teachers of English: the currently popular use of "disinterest" in a sense I fail to find authorized in Webster.)

Part I, "Discussion as a Democratic Method of Finding Solutions to Problems," consists of a description of the process of group dynamics and a transcription of Soundscriber recordings of a group dynamics session on "The Place of Skills in the Language Arts Program." Either this transcription was ruthlessly edited or the dialog was carefully rehearsed and memorized before recording, for it smells unmistakably of the lamp.

Part II is a compilation of source materials dealing with "Problems in the Teaching of English Suitable to Discussion Groups." These problems are "The Place of Skills in the Language Arts Program," "Development of Personal Taste and Appreciation through Literature," "Experiences in Creative Activities," and "The Values of the Language Arts in Living." The "Questions for Discussion" prescribed, as well as the methodology outlined in Part I and the illustrative transcription are all weighty evidence that group dynamics as here delineated is not a democratic way of solving problems, but an authoritarian indoctrination by spoon-feeding. The problems posed are important and must be solved; there is no quarrel with the solutions suggested. But the problems as expressed, discussion of them, and the solutions suggested for them are simply a re-adoption (with a few conspicuous but non-significant trimmings) of the old "recitation" which most teachers have long since decided is outmoded in the classroom. A problem is set, homework is assigned, and after a suitable lapse of time the pupils are quizzed to determine whether or not they can parrot their readings.

Utilization of the ritual outlined in this pamphlet is designed to facilitate "The direct participation of classroom teachers in the development of school policies and programs. . . ." *Discussion Guide for Teachers of English* provides several scenarios for dramatic play, but it will not equip its users to define problems, and, having defined them, to propose and evaluate potential solutions.

H. L. M.

IN THE PERIODICALS

Elizabeth Andersch, *Editor*
Assisted by Carroll Arnold and Gordon Wiseman

SPEECH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Of General Interest

BANTOCK, G. H., "Activities and Formal Work in School, I and II," *Journal of Education*, 84 (September and October 1952), 401-402, 452, 454.

The author, a Lecturer in Education, University College, Leicester, asserts that "a true and adequate appreciation of what is rightly required in a learning situation" should lead teachers to seek "the balancing of the child's present interests and possible lines of development with a clear-sighted appreciation of the need to serve a purpose beyond the present demands." Such a broad and inclusive appreciation, it is argued, should avert the dangers of "progressivism" while encouraging the search for environmental, conditions suitable to learning.

DUNCAN, WALTER, "Communicative Confusion," *The Southern Speech Journal*, 18 (September 1952), 24-27.

The strength and importance of mass media is expressed and the need for understanding the act and art of communication is emphasized. The author feels that there has been little cooperation among the "academicians" in trying to solve this all important problem. "Integration" seems to be the keynote for solving the problem. The author's last reminder is, "Until something of this sort is done, we will continue to flounder around vacillating from one extreme to another, with the extremist or faddist who can work the hardest, talk the loudest, and succeed in establishing his point of view winning out, at least temporarily."

FULTON, REED, "Our Consumers of Education Speak Their Mind," *The Clearing House*, 27 (September 1952), 42-43.

This article is the result of a panel of High School Alumni of a few years' standing telling what they thought about the education they had received and making suggestions for improvements. Quoting the paragraph on speech:

"Much emphasis was laid on the skills of communication. 'Give your pupils more experi-ence in discussion, in conference, in practical writing. More public speaking. More participation. More courses demanding self-expression. Those are the ones which really pay off.' "

GOTTFRIED, F. J., "The Ohio High School Activity Association," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 31 (September 17, 1952), 151-158, 167-168.

A brief historical review of steps taken in Ohio for improving supervision and control of high school extracurricular activities, together with an extended analysis of prevailing attitudes of high school principals toward present and future methods of centralized supervision.

GREENLEAF, FLOYD I., "An Exploratory Study of Speech Fright," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 38 (October 1952), 326-330.

A report on the results of personal and questionnaire interviews with college students reporting fear of speaking. Results of the interviews suggest that "the similarities and differences between speech fright and stuttering could probably be investigated to advantage." The author finds that fear of speaking situations is frequently traceable to unfortunate or embarrassing earlier experiences and that those who fear to speak commonly avoid speech situations whenever possible.

GULICK, JAMES, "A Literature Unit in Human Relations," *English Journal*, 41 (September 1952), 348-351.

A report on application to the teaching of English of techniques drawn from experiments in group dynamics. The teaching program made use of small group discussions, class forums, and dramatic representation as instruments for encouraging consideration and interpretation of basic themes from literature.

HALLIE, P. P., "A Criticism of General Semantics," *College English*, 14 (October 1952), 17-23.

The author feels that general semantics is a developing school of thought and tries to point out certain weaknesses that appear to be

fundamental. In pointing out these weaknesses he uses some of the findings of modern logical analysis.

The author summarizes the basis of his criticism in the following statement:

"These weaknesses revolve around the apparent incapacity of the general semanticists to take into account what we shall call 'logical terms,' words like 'or', 'and', 'not', 'if . . . then', 'all', and 'some'. . . . This lacuna turns many of their doctrines into half-truths, vitiates many of their arguments, and serves to mislead students of language."

The author has a constructive attitude throughout his criticism and uses the following three books as his departure: S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Thought and Action*; Stuart Chase, *The Tyranny of Words*; and Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity*.

HARRISON, BENTON W., "The 'Is' of Identity in Business Situations," *ETC.* 9 (Summer 1952), 270-272.

The concept in General Semantics of the "is of identity" is discussed in its relationship to a business situation. Vivid examples are given in dialogue form which clearly illustrate the importance of this one point in business. A good way to introduce some of the basic concepts of General Semantics into a Business and Professional Speech course.

HAYAKAWA, S. I., "Semantics," *ETC.* 9 (Summer 1952), 243-257.

An historical view of significs, semantics, and general semantics showing relationships to contributing factors of our General Semantics of today. An excellent background or quick over-view of General Semantics. A digest of basic ideas is given in the following topics: (1) Significs; Logical Empiricism, (2) Pragmatism; Operationalism, (3) Literary Criticism and Theory, (4) Linguistics; Anthropology, (5) General Semantics, (6) Nondirective Counseling; Group Dynamics, (7) Mathematical Physics; Mathematical Biology, and (8) Cybemetics. Although brevity has been the keynote, there is a conciseness of quality that makes the article valuable.

HOCKETT, HERBERT, "The Communication Skills Course," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Summer 1952), 39-40.

A brief background of the development of the Communication Skills Course is given and a synthesis of present day thinking in regards to it. The practical importance of such a course

is expressed in the idea—"Skills are no longer taught as if they existed in a vacuum; they are treated as cultural behavior." A frank discussion lists the two basic problems which face this new discipline as (1) The training of teachers qualified to operate in a much expanded field and (2) The formation of a new discipline with an integrated philosophy and a common core based on scholarly research. The article is treated as an introductory article and a short bibliography is listed for further study.

KENNY, RITA J. AND EDWARD T. SCHOFIELD, "Audio-Visual Aids for the English Teacher," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 19 (October 1952), 23-37.

A comprehensive catalogue of motion pictures, slides, filmstrips, and recordings of service to junior and senior high school English teachers. Typical groupings include: English Literature, American Literature, Mechanics of English, Modern Media of Communication, etc.

MACKENDRICK, PAUL, "Education for the Art of Living," *Journal of Higher Education*, 23 (November 1952), 423-428, 456.

An essay, subtitled, "a humanist's description of 'General Education.'" The author reasons that the object of general education is to point the way to an "art of living," in which we re-create "for ourselves the best of the past, which if we know not we remain always children, doomed to repeat forever without knowing it the mistakes of our forefathers.

MALONEY, MARTIN, "'Communication' and the Arts," *ETC.* 9 (Summer 1952), 263-269.

The "new criticism" is discussed in the light of communication and the effect it would have on the "arts." The author suggests that communication, especially in the arts is not a linear process and is probably not as simple as many assume. The poet and the poetic process is discussed from a General Semanticists point of view. The relationship of the poet and the critic are reconciled in a creative way in the latter part of the article.

PUNKE, H. H., "Teaching How to Think Without Teaching What to Think," *School and Society*, 76 (August 2, 1952), 65-67.

The author suggests that as educators we need to differentiate between "teaching and indoctrination." He feels that the crux of the matter is: to what extent does the particular content which is used in teaching a method of thinking or analysis determine the extent to which the method will be anchored and

restricted to the particular content when used illustratively in the teaching process?

An article worth the consideration of teachers of argumentation and debate.

REID, SEERLEY, "How to Obtain Government Films," *School Life*, 34 (May 1952), 120-121.

A tabular summary of sources from which U. S. Government motion pictures and filmstrips may be borrowed, rented, or purchased.

RIGGS, MARGARET M., "Ability, Capacity, and Potentials," *Training School Bulletin*, 49 (October 1952), 131-138.

"A continuing interaction between environment and genetic endowment narrows hereditary potentials down to a given constitutional potential for each person." Reasoning from this premise, the author believes teachers must seek "well-rounded effort rather than well-rounded achievement" since children are not equally capable in all areas of learning. "This," she concludes, "is particularly important for the sub-normal child, who often is forced to grind away at the precise material on which he is most likely to fail. . . . Research on patterns of intellectual growth should save us from running the risk of forcing our children to fail."

SCHREIBER, ROBERT E., "Finding the Motion and the Picture in the Motion Picture," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 19 (October 1952), 13-14.

If the value of the motion picture as a teaching aid rests upon its ability to reach the mind through *motion*, the proper test of a good film must be whether or not it conveys its message in this manner. If it does not educate through the presentation of things in motion, some simpler, more flexible teaching instrument may serve as well or better than the film. The author warns against choosing motion pictures because the narrations convey a desired message or because a few visual images are superior. In such cases the same educational benefits can be more easily obtained through the use of other instructional instruments or aids.

SCHREIBER, ROBERT E., "News of Latest A-V Materials and Equipment," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 19 (September 1952), 11-12, 14-26.

Listings and descriptions of projecting and recording equipment, filmstrips, films, and recordings. Three films on parliamentary procedure are announced.

SCHREIBER, ROBERT E., "Non-Projected Teaching Materials," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 19 (October 1952), 16, 18-22.

Listings include recorded sound discrimination tests and a recorded course in effective speaking.

SMITH, JR., HENRY LEE and GEORGE L. TRAGER, "Metalinguistics," *ETC.* 9 (Spring 1952), 163-166.

This article was prepared to define and clarify the term "metalinguistics." The term was devised to cover aspects of linguistic science dealing with *the relation of linguistic behavior* (language) *to other human behavior*. The association of General Semantics to metalinguistics is stressed. The article serves as an introduction to this special issue on metalinguistics.

WERNER, W. L. "English for the World," *Saturday Review*, 35 (October 4, 1952), 15-17.

An inquiry into the forces and agencies which carry the English language into the affairs of non-English speaking peoples. The author believes English is well advanced toward becoming a world language, but he finds a growing nationalistic pressure opposing its further spread. Believing, also, that a common language must prove a boon to international understanding, he calls for increased efforts toward spreading English in order to counteract the divisiveness which a too vigorous nationalism must breed.

WILSON, GUY M., "Psychological Basis for Motivation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 38 (October 1952), 350-358.

Applying the results of an analysis of motivated response, the author formulates a list of five essential qualities of motivated activity and considers the means by which the classroom teacher may invoke interest and understanding through methods which feed all of the expectations from which motivated action springs.

Drama and Interpretation

BOVEE, MARY ELLA, "Allied Activities and Dramatics," *Dramatics*, 24 (October 1952), 16-17, 34.

This is one of a series of eight articles giving suggestions on how Thespian sponsors can join with other departments to make dramatics a coordinated part of school life. This one is concerned with the relation of dramatics to such allied activities as language, health, education, school publications, the extra-curricular club program, and the home room program. There is a general discussion on the assembly

program. The author concludes with the suggestion that dramatics can be the greatest single unifying agent in the entire curriculum.

COBERLY, DORIS E., "A Dramatics Club in Action," *School Activities*, 24 (September 1952), 27-28.

Interest, usefulness, creative activities, democracy, and leadership made for success for this club organized and sponsored by the High School. The program has been varied quite a great deal. Lyrics have been written for the program for clean-up week and one-act plays have been given for assembly programs. The club operates on a meager budget, but it is long on school service.

DE MARCO, NORMAN, "Functional Designs," *Players Magazine*, 27 (May 1951), 172-174.

A description, with floor plans and pictures, of the new theatre plant at the University of Arkansas.

FARLEY, GILBERT J., "Round or Square," *School Activities*, 24 (September 1952), 19-20.

Among the many opportunities for drama-student training, the two that can best be developed on the arena stage are "continuous acting" ability and naturalness in acting.

Because the audience surrounds the stage and because there can be no prompting the actor must "know" the character he is playing and it is necessary for every person on stage to be in character at all times.

Naturalness in acting is the other outstanding advantage of the arena stage. On the traditional stage the actor must constantly be aware of his physical relationship to the audience; the actor in the ring may do or say his part in a very natural way. The very setting of the stage is life-like.

FIELD, ELLIOTT, Editor, "Drama in the Church: Brotherhood and Drama," *Players Magazine*, 27 (May 1951), 181.

The author cites Euripides, who in the fifth century B.C., re-echoed the Athenian Satestation of tyranny, "Freedom is as a 'priceless name' and the man who enjoys it, though poor otherwise, has a 'great possession.'" The recrudescence of ancient tyrannies places in the forefront of dramatic themes those topics which deal with man's love of his fellowmen. In times such as these, the dramatic program of the church, college, and community, should trumpet forth the theme, "freedom as a priceless name and a great possession." Several plays

and pageants which give cogent views of human brotherhood are listed.

HAEHL, CHEZ J., "Paper Mache Masks," *Players Magazine*, 27 (May 1951), 178, 180.

The necessary materials are listed and a step-by-step procedure for the making of paper mache masks follows.

HOLLAND, DONALD, "Script-in-Hand Performances," *Players Magazine*, 27 (May 1951), 175.

A description of the advantages of the Script-in-Hand program as it is used in the dramatics department at Pennsylvania State College. The author suggests that this technique can be successfully used by student actors in high school and college workshop productions as well as in the community theatre.

PAYLER, ESTER MILLER, "Our Circus—A Class Play," *School Activities*, 24 (September 1952), 24-27.

This play is suitable for one class or several, and has been used successfully for primary and middle grades.

The article contains complete instructions for the setting, characters, and costumes and the Play to present a circus.

SCHNITZLER, HENRY, "The Educational Theatre and UNESCO," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 38 (October 1952), 305-310.

A discussion of present and future possibilities for the international exchange of information regarding theatrical activities at educational institutions. The author pleads for more vigorous participation by educational theatre groups in the international exchange activities.

SMITH, LENA MARTIN, "Home—Heart of the World," *School Activities*, 24 (October 1952), 50-51.

This is a symbolic pageant which may be presented by twenty persons on a small stage or any multiple of twenty on a large stage outdoors.

The music, costumes, properties, settings, pageant text and order of events are given.

VOLBACH, WALTHER, "Staging Operas," *Players Magazine*, 27 (May 1951), 177-178.

The article is concerned with the artistic requirements and the technical possibilites of staging an opera.

WRIGHT, LAURA, "The Forgotten Audience," *Dramatics*, 24 (October 1952), 26-27.

According to the author, high school dramatic organizations are forgetting an important audience—the children. The article tells how the challenge of children's theatre can be met and concludes with the prediction that the satisfaction derived from the first children's theatre production will cause the next to be inevitable.

Public Speaking, Discussion, and Debate

BAIRD, A. CRAIG, "Political Speaking in 1952: A Symposium," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 38 (October 1952), 264-299.

Descriptive and analytical consideration of the Republican and Democratic national conventions of 1952 with short critical essays on the speech making of each major candidate for the Presidential nominations.

BAIRD, A. CRAIG, "The Debater: His Secret Weapons," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Autumn 1952), 67-70.

An excellent and much needed article on "The Debater: His Political and Ethical Responsibilities." A reminiscent background of discussion brings the author to his main question, "How shall we improve debating to make it more serviceable? And more vigorously supported by school and college administrators?" The first suggestion discussed is the need to stress more fully debating as preparation for political responsibilities. The second, which constitutes the basis of the article, is debate can be strengthened by further emphasis on the debater's ethical and moral responsibilities. Under this point the following topics are discussed: Ethics and Conviction, Ethics and Facts, Ethics and Clear Statements, Ethics and Name Calling, and Ethics and Truth. The article is a "must" for debaters and coaches alike.

BUEHLER, E. C., "Delivery in Debate," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Spring 1952), 12-13.

The article is devoted to the problem of delivery in contest debating. The following points are made for the debater: (1) Get the communicative spirit. (2) Be genuine. (3) Speak with lots of enthusiasm. (4) Be human. These points are enlarged upon and are worth reviewing for valuable emphasis to debate training.

CHAPMAN, FLOYD W., "How to Get Audiences for Forensics Meets," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Autumn 1952), 74-84.

A discussion of a "much talked about, but little done about problem." A fresh approach to old ideas is placing the emphasis on "co-operation with the administrative authorities in our schools." The author concludes the article with this last reminder: "We are forensics coaches second, educators first. We can be more successful in both tasks with the experienced aid of the pilot of the ship."

CHENOWETH, EUGENE C., "Persuasion Wins the Audience," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Summer 1952), 38-39.

Persuasion is defined as "chiefly the presentation of facts so forcefully, emphatically, simply, and vividly that people are caused to believe in a plan or are aroused to act as the speaker desires." The importance of action of the audience is brought out. An elaboration on the definition is given with clear everyday examples. The sophistic use of persuasion is exposed and the importance of the use of "word-pictures" is emphasized. A list of "Tests for Persuasion" is given and the student is urged to use them.

DRIVER, HELEN I., "Learning Self and Social Adjustment Through Small-Group Discussion," *Mental Hygiene*, 36 (October 1952), 600-606.

A report on an informal experiment in combining counseling interviews with small-group discussions in a program aimed at improving the social adjustment of college and high school students. The author concludes: "Students who have *felt needs* in areas of personality growth apparently use small-group discussion as a learning climate, when it is co-ordinated with individual counseling by competent personnel."

GAIER, EUGENE L., "The Relationship Between Selected Personality Variables and the Thinking of Students in Discussion Classes," *School Review*, 60 (October 1952), 404-411.

"One of the great hopes for research on the relation between personality and learning is the possibility that a small number of personality characteristics are really significant as distinguished from the larger number which may have significance for individual diagnosis and therapy. If some small number of characteristics can be identified and defined in behavior terms, the average teacher can learn to recognize and make use of them in dealing with individual students."

This study investigates the relation between three selected personality characteristics, the learning processes in the classroom, and the achievement of students as revealed by exam-

inations of eleven subjects over a four month's period.

Although the class investigated was a social science class in the College of the University of Chicago, the findings and the methods used are vitally important to any teacher striving to understand student personality characteristics believed to be relevant for learning: anxiety, rigidity, and negativism.

HALL, JANET, "A Student Looks at Junior Town Meetings," *Social Studies*, 43 (October 1952), 242-244.

A student's report on the history, purposes, and functioning of the Junior Town Meetings of Bridgeton, New Jersey, and of other eastern high schools.

HARDING, HAROLD F., "The College Student as a Critic," *Vital Speeches*, 18 (September 15, 1952), 733-735.

This is a speech on the criticism of public address. The author states the purposes of a critic are as follows: (1) to discover the facts; (2) to compare, for example, promise with performance, theory with practice, good with bad, past with present, present with probabilities; (3) to evaluate effects and give an appraisal; (4) to recommend; (5) to act and to lead others—not to accept blindly or follow meekly.

A few commandments are also listed, "Thou shalt not misrepresent . . ." etc. The speaker set forth questions for public address criteria in the following groups: analytical, historical, critical, and editorial.

He suggests that the final pages of *The Age of Danger* contains some fifty questions or directions designed "to stimulate discussion."

McLAUGHLIN, T. J., "Ethics in Contest Debating," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Spring 1952), 9-10.

The article reviews adverse criticisms of intercollegiate debate from various authors and articles in order to emphasize ethical standards of debating. This is a negative approach, but the positive position is apparent in the teacher's obligation to develop ideals and a sense of responsibility.

MELZER, DOROTHY G., "Suggestions for Improving Debate Judging," *The Southern Speech Journal*, 18 (September 1952), 43-51.

The author examines some of the problems involved in tournament debating and suggests steps that can be taken to improve the situation.

The author suggests accreditation of qualified judges to advance the cause of qualified judging. Most of the article deals with the following safeguards which can be built into tournaments: (1) Mechanical pairings and assignment of judges should be used. (2) Aids to efficient judging should be provided by the tournament director. (3) Uniform criteria should be established before the tournament begins. (4) Critiques should be guided or limited. (5) The ballot should encourage decision on clash. (6) A complete record should be distributed at the end of the tournament.

MELZER, JOHN HENRY, "What is Functional Logic?" *Peabody Journal of Education*, 30 (September 1952), 80-89.

Mr. Melzer defines functional logic, comparing it with logic. He explains the need for, and importance of, a functional logic course in a program of general education.

NICHOLS, E. R., "American Debating: Beginning a Codification of Its Rules and Customs," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Autumn 1952), 70-73.

The author has felt the need for a codification of the rules and practices of debating so he has set about to make this codification, setting forth what we have inherited from other countries and pointing out notable variations and national differences. Some thirty-two terms and/or concepts are set forth in the article. Would make a good handbook for the new debater.

SCHWARTZ, JOSEPH, "Techniques of Analysis," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Spring 1952), 3-5.

The author states that the debater should analyze a question in these terms: (1) What is the principle involved in the actual situation? (2) How may the principle be applied to the actual situation?

He stresses three things which an investigation of the current techniques of analysis should do: (1) Make an informal analysis of the problem rather than a pretended and inadequate formal or scientific analysis. (2) The key word should be principle and not needplan. (3) If a proposal is based upon a principle that is honest, truthful, and good, a plan of action must be possible and is indeed in the long run probable.

Radio and Television

EXTON, ELAINE, "TV Channels are Obtainable for Educational Use—Will Schools Accept this Opportunity?" *American School Board Journal*, 125 (October 1952), 30-32, 90.

A review of federal action respecting allocation of channels for educational telecasting. The author also summarizes some of the current plans and programs for obtaining and using these channels.

FREUND, ROBERTA B. AND MARGARET P. WERBER, "Television Series Helps Introduce New Course of Study," *The Nation's Schools*, 50 (August 1952), 74-80.

WATV offered the Newark Board of Education a half hour "spot" for a television series planned for in-school viewing. An elementary Science Program series was planned with the museum responsible for the lessons and for furnishing the materials. A detailed account of the school, the station, and the museum planning the series is given.

FULLER, EDGAR, "Television Is Ours if We Use It," *School Executive* (August 1952), 40-41.

The Executive Secretary of the National Council of Chief State School Officers outlines the methods which school systems must follow in procuring television channels temporarily reserved by the Federal Communications Commission for educational use.

HUNTER, ARMAND L., "It's Up to Educators to Improve TV Programming," *The Nation's Schools*, 50 (July 1952), 66-70.

It is stated that is will probably have to be the major responsibility of the educator and the educational broadcaster to take on the challenge of qualitative research for determination of needs, the establishment of standards, and the improvement of television broadcasting through creative experimentation in program content and form.

Progress along these lines will be achieved if the following objectives are the guidepost of the educator: (1) to assume leadership in program and audience research; (2) to seek really to know and to understand the people whom the medium serves; (3) to give positive recognition and credit to better programming when and where found; (4) to resist and fight the shoddy, the shallow, and the cynical exploitation of undeveloped levels of taste; (5) to dare to provide education without adulteration and entertainment without apology; (6) to teach with imagination, stimulation, and sincerity; (7) to put service above self at all times; (8) to work toward these ends with a sense of humor and an adult objectivity that will put the differences in belief and conviction in their proper place and correct perspective.

PALARINE, LORAYNE, "Radio-Television Workshop," *The Nation's Schools*, 50 (September 1952), 90-94.

Educators are encouraged to promote radio and television experience on the high school level through the speech departments. There is a suggested floor plan for a radio workshop and tables for approximate cost for studio and equipment.

STEETLE, RALPH, "Television and the Schools," *American School Board Journal*, 125 (October 1952), 29-30.

A brief summary of the costs, opportunities, and recent progress in educational television.

SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

"An Educational Film of Rare Distinction," *The Volta Review*, 54 (September 1952), 313, 336.

The Lexington School for the Deaf has issued a film called "That the Deaf May Speak." The film, 42 minutes in length, vividly traces therapeutical steps taken in educational development of deaf children.

BEASELY, JANE, "Dynamics of Behavior As a Frame of Reference in Speech Therapy," *The Southern Speech Journal*, 18 (September 1952), 13-19.

The trend in dealing with human behavior from the standpoint that what a person does on the surface is the result of a deeper lying dynamic pattern is the basis for this article. The use of the concept as a frame of reference in speech therapy is important from two standpoints: (1) "A child's behavior, of which speech is a part is caused." (2) "Even if the speech deviation is not related as directly to the so-called emotional problems, a child's ability to profit from training problems, a child's ability to profit from training of any kind, including speech, is also based on the forces operating in him and in his surroundings."

Four basic concepts are suggested as useful in helping to understand a child better and in mapping out the program for therapy:

(1) The child's *perceptions of himself* affect the gains he makes, the kind of behavior he shows.

(2) The child's *perceptions of his environment* growing out of early experiences may also markedly influence what he does.

(3) The child's *needs* also play a decisive part in affecting his growth.

(4) Closely allied with the child's needs are the values he has.

Each one of these points is clearly discussed and several case studies are given which make the article valuable not only to speech correctionists, but to teachers of speech as well.

DOBBS, HARRISON ALLEN, "More Certainty in Educating Children with Defects," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 30 (September 1952), 66-74.

This article emphasizes the current scope and import of this personal and community problem and illustrates the range of effort and motive now prompting improvement.

ENGEL, ANNA M., "How to Help Parents of Physically Handicapped Children," *NEA Journal*, 41 (October 1952), 432-433.

A discussion of general objectives in encouraging suitable and helpful attitudes among the parents of handicapped children.

GAFFNEY, JOHN P., JR., "Creative Dramatics for Hard of Hearing Children," *The Volta Review*, 54 (September 1952), 321-322, 326.

The author explains how creative dramatics stimulates self-expression and helps to develop personality, initiative, and imagination. Included are suggested creative dramatic techniques.

HEILMAN, ANN, "Intelligence in Cerebral Palsy," *The Crippled Child* (August 1952), 11-13.

Research studies of the intelligence of the cerebral palsied individuals are given in detail and the results as interpreted indicate that probably one should revise the estimates of intelligence downward.

McLAUGHLIN, MARJORIE, "Uses of the Flannelgraph," *The Volta Review*, 54 (September 1952), 317, 326-328.

Methods, procedures, and techniques for the use of the flannelgraph as a supplementary aid to teaching little deaf children. Of the various visual aids available, the flannelgraph presents one of the simplest and most inexpensive.

NEWTON, LYDIA, "The Child Who is Different," *NEA Journal*, 41 (September 1952), 356-357.

A brief report on Arizona's program of testing and special education for handicapped children in the rural schools.

OTTO, HENRY J., "Teaching Handicapped Children," *The Nation's Schools*, 50 (July 1952), 38-43.

Texas schools provide normal classroom situations in teaching handicapped children with orthopedic problems, vision loss, hearing loss, speech disorders, nervous disorders, lowered vitality, and mental retardation. The article consists of the account of the services rendered by the education department and the some twenty pictures illustrate the class situations.

Speech assistance was found to be needed for approximately five per cent of any school population. This assistance is given twice a week by itinerant speech therapists who work with small groups individually until they develop optimal speech.

SODDY, KENNETH, "Mental Health and the Maladjusted Child," *Mental Hygiene*, 36 (July 1952), 383-393.

"The most potent factors in the mental health of the child appear to be connected with the quality of his interpersonal relationships." In consequence, efforts to assist the maladjusted child may most profitably "be aimed at family rehabilitation rather than at readjusting the child." Prevention of maladjustment must be achieved through improving the environment of home and school.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

David Potter, *Editor*

TALE OF TWO TOWNS. Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan, 1951. 40 minutes. Sound. Black and White. Sale $66.48. Color $226.55. Rentals arranged through the Film Libraries of the Universities of Texas, Georgia, and Michigan.

This film tells the story of how two small northern Michigan towns helped themselves to a better community through a spirit and a program of community cooperation. The scenes in the picture are those of the actual towns and the characters play their own real-life roles, though under "movie" names. The picture portrays the development of the idea of self help from the initial stages of conflict and dissension through the struggle of coming to a realization of the meaning of cooperation to the final stage of willingness to discuss superficial differences in order to live in a better community.

Production of the film was made possible through a grant from the Kellogg Foundation and the cooperation of the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. It is an outgrowth of a research project to determine the role of the local school in promoting civic improvements. This three-year project was later expanded into eight years and is under the direction of the Department's community school service division.

"The theme is: let's help ourselves in our home towns, before running to Washington or to the state capitol at Lansing with our woes. And let's use the local school system as the focal point for initiating a program of community development." (Willard Baird in a Special Dispatch to the *Battle Creek Enquirer News*, May 20, 1951.)

The film shows how the theme was put to actual practice; and it is interesting to the speech teacher for two reasons: first, because it shows how this idea germinated and how the leaders' attitudes were changed from being against the other fellows' ideas to one of willingness to hear them through, and second, because it illustrates so well the important role of group discussion in practical, everyday affairs. The latter is our chief concern here.

It might be expected that the observer will come away with a bag full of specific techniques for getting cooperation in a difficult meeting. Actually, there are no tricks at all. The transformation occurs when all parties to the initial conflict realize that their ultimate objectives are mutual and that their differences are chiefly procedure and timing. With this conversion a fact, cooperation is easy; the contenders admit, reluctantly at first, their mistaken notions about one another and about how things *have* to be done, and they agree that after all they *do* want the *same* things. The process of effecting these changes involves good sense, a measure of open-mindedness, and a willingness to discard prejudice and to substitute for it a desire to hear the other fellow's argument. The change in spirit which the film shows is what really matters, a change from dogmatism, self-righteousness, and suspicion to one of openmindedness, reasonableness, and of identity of purpose.

Throughout the film a variety of discussion procedures are seen in operation. Parliamentary meetings at first, then interviews, conversations, committee meetings, study groups, panels—each has its place in the natural course of events. Much can be gained from seeing it, including sociological information, and it is especially useful in courses in group discussion, group leadership, community problems, and for adult education groups. In a film forum situation it serves well as a stimulator to a discussion on leadership or discussion techniques. It is full of action, and the fact that the characters play themselves does not detract from either the enjoyment or from the instruction received from seeing it. For the speech teacher and his classes it demonstrates eloquently the role of group discussion in community activities.

HUGO J. DAVID,
Michigan State College

COMMUNICATION OF IDEAS AND IDEALS. A Series of Eight Silent Film strips Prepared by Dr. Bess Sondel and Illustrated by Cissie Liebshutz for the Society for Visual Education, Inc.

1. RELATION OF PERSONALITY TO COMMUNICATION. SVE, 1950. 44 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

In this film strip, Dr. Sondel supports the thesis that a speech is good if the listeners understand, trust, and go along with the speaker. To reach the desired goals of good speaking, the speaker is advised to strive to be conscious of his "own self," be an "open self"; listen, admit, and permit other viewpoints; be flexible and alive; and ideally, be a thinker, feeler, and doer.

Unfortunately, the strip does not show how these admonitions are to be applied. And the illustrations, as in frames 5 and 6, add little but confusion. Furthermore, there is some danger of over-simplification in the text. "Be yourself" is fluent advice but as many speech teachers realize, doing what comes naturally is not always desirable. Nevertheless, the strip should prove useful as a stimulator of discussion in an advanced public speaking class.

2. RELATION OF INTERESTS TO COMMUNICATION. SVE, 1950. 43 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

The essence of this strip is summed up by Dr. Sondel as follows "Everyone can be interesting. Clarify your interests. Set your goals and get busy. When your interests include others, people will listen. and they will like you, trust you, respect you. AND APPLAUD YOU!"

The summary frame will probably be the clearest one in the strip to most viewers. The cartoons are of little help in clarifying and illustrating the points of the author. And the script is at times, misleading. "If you want to be interesting, look to your interests" is truncated advice. As is "If you have a strong interest —you will speak up!"

3. HOW TO READ. SVE, 1950. 42 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

Dr. Sondel informs us that "How we read is determined by why we read." One understands only when he can summarize succinctly (in one sentence) what he has read. Then we are told how to summarize—i.e., by the idea, the subject-matter or story, or by the effect of the item.

This is a neatly organized, and simply presented strip. Beginning courses in public speaking and conversational speech should profit by reviewing it.

4. HOW TO WRITE. SVE, 1950. 42 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

Here Dr. Sondel introduces the viewer to semantics, discussing the four uses of words: informative, valuative, incitive and systemic.

The material is heavily presented and the cartoons offer little succor. Students will experience some difficulty with passages like "There is one more use of words that is called SYSTEMIC. Words that pull our IDEAS, or our FEELINGS, or our purposes together— in a CONTROLLING ASSERTION—are SYSTEMIC. These words SYSTEMATIZE the ideas or the feelings or the actions of a reader."

5. HOW TO CONVERSE. SVE, 1950. 44 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

In this strip we are urged to avoid being self-centered. Instead, we are to have a purpose in speaking, be able to sum up our ideas in one controlling assertion, and listen as well as speak. Such common faults in conversation as kowtowing (spelled "kotowing"), monopolizing the conversation, and failing to use our ears are listed. The differences and places of competition and cooperation are stressed. And the failing to understand (the main obstacle to conversation) is explained semantically.

Much of the material presented in previous strips is nicely summarized in this one. The reviewers believe that it is the most useful item in the series.

6. HOW TO PREPARE A SPEECH. SVE, 1949. 40 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

Here we are instructed in the Sondel techniques of organizing and practicing a talk. In one frame (in the organizing category) we are told how to select a subject. In another, the "natural" parts of the outline are given: 1. courage, 2. action, 3. knowledge. Subsequently, we are told that memory depends upon our knowing how the parts are related to each other. This relationship is given as the partitional, the causal, the means-to-an-end, time, and space. One frame is then devoted to illustrating each prescribed relationship. When practicing the talk, we are given such instructions as: memorize nothing, sound strong, find your words as you go, introduce your talk with a greeting (the cartoon on this frame has the speaker saying hello), state your controlling theme sentence following the greeting, then go into the body of the talk—keeping "the pauses clean," move on the platform being careful to "look the way you walk," and restate your controlling assertion in the conclusion. "Smooth as silk, isn't it?"

The last quotation is of questionable validity. "Sound strong and you'll feel strong. Sound weak and you'll pass out" is another sample of courage bolstering but misleading advice.

7. HOW TO DELIVER A SPEECH. SVE, 1950. 45 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

Much of this strip is devoted to the discussion of stage fright. We are advised: "Be yourself. . . . It's just tension—honestly. You'll feel better too when you start to run—er, excuse me! —start to speak. . . . You respond somehow [after you discover that the audience is made of people]." Later Dr. Sondel suggests that the first words of the speaker should be phrased as a greeting—as in conversation: "It's nice to be here." This is dubious advice as are the following suggestions: "Hold one pair of eyes firmly—and you hold the whole group. . . . If your speech is choppy—so much the better. . . . Anything you do in good conversation is right for platform speaking. . . . The fellow who struggles is never a Bore. He's alive!" The cartoons were not!

8. RELATION OF IDEALS TO COMMUNICATION. SEV, 1950. 43 Frames. Black & White. Sale, $3.25.

In this strip, the difference between ideas and ideals is neatly discussed and the pitfalls in language are explored. Teachers of speech should find the strip a valuable teaching aid.

DAVID POTTER
HUGO DAVID
FREDERICK ALEXANDER

GARDEN OF EDEN: THE FIERY FURNACE: NOAH'S ARK, DAVID AND GOLIATH—Readings from the Bible by Charles Laughton, Decca Records, DU-15, 16, 17, 18. Each complete on one twelve-inch, unbreakable record, list price $2.00 plus tax, 78 RPM. Also obtainable in Decca long playing (LP). DL8031, $4.85 plus tax.

Charles Laughton, who has done much in the last two years to bring interpretative reading back to its former and honorable status, has also done yeoman service in making the Bible live as literature in the minds of those who are hearing it well read for probably the first time. Those people who are interested in religion will rejoice greatly that a master reader has finally made the record of belief believable and right by sound; those who are interested in the Bible as literature will be thrilled that the majesty of language and the sonority of words are finally hearable by a nation which has not been taught to read, and the children of which are largely ignorant of even the simplest Bible stories. Those who are interested in interpretative reading as such will be glad that there are available examples of simple, powerful, dramatic stories re-created by a master of reading.

Louis Untermeyer says that Laughton "combines dramatic power with true scholarship. Instead of declaiming words as though they were overfamiliar texts, Laughton re-animates them with fervor and profound passion—the results of years of intensive study—and reads them as though they were new experience, almost as though they had never been read before. He brings a fresh interest and understanding to the narratives which have always been inspiring but which now take on renewed life and vigor."

No teacher can afford to fail to make these records available for all ages from the fourth or fifth grade up. Since nearly all literature refers to Biblical happenings and terms, students must have at least some acquaintance with the stories of the Bible. Since it is the acknowledged greatest literature of the world, something must be done to re-acquaint and re-interest the world in it. Interest has largely died because of unresponsive readings in church services, of mumbling by poor readers, of sonorous declamations by preachers unaware of even the basic fundamentals of good reading, of memorizing psalms or other selections totally beyond the comprehension of those doing the memory work. Now we have the beginning of the simple telling of stories which have to be understood because of the compelling meaning in the voice of the reader.

Mr. Laughton says he began Bible readings when he read to wounded soldiers in England during the war. He had been reading Dickens, Thomas Wolfe, Whitman, Hans Christian Anderson, etc., but when he first read from the Bible they groaned and exhibited every evidence of boredom because they thought the Bible dull. He set about how not to "make the Good Book sound dull and how to cajole them to enjoying it." The results are well worth listening to.

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